The Challenges of Management in Turbulent Times
Global Issues from Local Perspective
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Introduction

Dynamic, often rapid changes in our environment are the cause of management facing new fascinating and difficult challenges. Rapidness by itself is incalculable and irregular but it is necessary to gain the ability of analyzing and dealing with its hidden causes. Difficult times point out the importance of Mr. Ducker’s message saying that „only change is constant”. However, for numerous enterprises it can also be times for new chances – if they are capable of understanding and grasping the new reality.

New management strategies cause enterprises to diverge from strategies and management methods used so far thus making them search for new ways and methods. The majority of companies, small and medium in particular, are active in their local environment. However, the challenges they need to face are strictly connected to changes in the economy. In difficult times enterprises are most of all expected to be able to adapt their tasks, functions and management strategies to rapidly changing conditioning that are influenced by economic transformation and integration as well as new technological and information challenges.

The basic aim while designing object scope and technical contents of this monograph was the need to identify and present the influence of global trends occurring in the economy on the process of enterprise managing. A great majority of presented solutions refers to small and medium enterprises. It was fully intentional, as those subjects are the most likely to be forced to solve global problems in their local perspective.

This publication depicting taken issues consists of three chapters. The purpose of the first one is to identify global challenges and their influence on enterprises’ strategies. Examples described prove that there is no one model of an effective strategy and that they tend to differ when taking into consideration internal and external conditions. The authors also point out that global changes influence revising established and accomplished goals of an enterprise and creating new organizational culture. The results of empirical research show the importance of new challenges to creating long-term goals of an enterprise that would guarantee preserving in constantly changing times.

The second chapter is dedicated to a debate over changes in concepts of enterprise management in changing environment. The authors also discuss
issues connected with the influence of new information technologies on methods of enterprise management, applying various business models and the role of innovation in preventing failures in running small enterprises.

The third chapter relates to conditioning management enterprise development processes from their local perspective. This chapter discusses important issues concerning diverse challenges of management, financing development and influence of economic policy on pursuing new projects. Problems associated with the inheritance and the role of the social responsibility in family corporations were also taken into consideration. Conclusions concerning selected aspects of knowledge management and motivation processes pointing out the key role in company’s development process.

The presented monograph constitutes the result of cooperation of authors representing scientific communities from many countries. Contacts established during the conference “Firmy Rodzinne” (‘Family Businesses’) that has been taking place annually since 2011 in Lodz, Poland, were the source of inspiration for creating this team of researchers. The conference is held by University of Social Sciences in Lodz, Poland and Universidad de Occidente in Sinaloa, Mexico. The book is thought to be a voice in the discussion on the shape of today’s enterprise, which – in these disturbing days – needs to be able to overcome global problems in the local environment. The authors hope that the readers will be inspired to find new perspectives when planning management an enterprise in difficult times. And – that it shall be a starting point for further research in this field.
Global Challenges and the Strategies of Enterprise Management
Small and Medium Enterprises in Poland during Global Financial Crisis

Introduction

The activities of small and medium-size enterprises (SMEs) have been intensively studied for many years. The examinations have been made both within the framework of development studies (from the perspective of economic growth, income and employment generation), as well as the management studies (with the focus on the specific character of small organizations) [see: Bąkiewicz 2010]. The SMEs have been usually analyzed during “normal” settings, which is the time of a relatively stable economy. Some studies only refer to the periods of economic instability, crisis or slowdown. The later are certainly inspiring, if only because the research of companies during economic crisis can be an opportunity to capture the specificity of these businesses and their particular role in the economy [Steiner-Streb 2011].

In recent years the global economy suffered from the financial crisis initiated by the collapse of Lehman Brothers Bank in September 2008. The crisis was a real challenge for all companies, and SMEs among them. The deep and complex slowdown changed the external conditions of business operations and required special adaptation measures. The aim of the paper is to find out what was the reaction of small enterprises to the specific external conditions created by the crisis. The primary objective of the study is to deepen our understanding of the specificity of SMEs. The analysis can also help us to enrich our knowledge on the barriers of the development of this sector of an economy. In particular, the experiences of Poland as a “green island” – the only economy in Europe which throughout the period of economic downturn had a positive rate of growth, may be an interesting and informative case to be analyzed in the context of the reaction of SMEs in other European economies. In other words, such
A research gives us also a chance to catch the role of SMEs in Poland in economic slowdown and recovery. Both the cognitive values and the importance of SMEs in the economy make our research reasonable.

The meaning of the study is also justified by the following contradiction: the analysis of the SMEs from the entrepreneurial literature perspective would explain good performance of Polish economy during the latest global financial crisis by high dynamics of the sector of small and medium-sized enterprises [see: PARP 2013]. Other studies, especially those concentrated on the barriers of small business development, would point at the reinforcement of the obstacles of SMEs activities during the crisis, especially those related to the availability of the external financing [Klein 2014]. So, following this way of thinking we might say that the crisis would be harmful especially for small businesses. And then, we could claim that the crisis would hit these weaker part of the economy stronger so the SMEs could be responsible for deepening economic difficulties.

The following research aims at answering the following question: what where the consequences of the global financial crisis for the SMEs in Poland compared to large enterprises (LEs)? In other words: were the SMEs hit harder by the financial crisis than large companies? The research is based on the latest statistics and reports, both Polish and international ones. The investigation is conducted at the sectorial level of particular size classes of the companies. Performance of individual businesses does not have to be consistent with the results of the entire sector/sub-sector.

The SMEs in economic literature – some theoretical issues

The theoretical framework of small business research is without no doubt quite rich and inspiring. Three aspects seem to be especially important here. First, there is an issue of development potential of the SMEs and their functions in an economy. Second, the role of small businesses in economic transformation in Poland is worth studying. Last but not least, there are some studies of small business during the latest financial crisis that deserves our attention.

Firstly, many studies point at significant differences between companies of different size [Bąkiewicz 2010]. In particular, it is has been stated that both from micro- and macroeconomic perspective small and medium enterprises have many important features [Gibb 2000, Michalczuk 2009]. And, the majority of the literature on the SMEs is quite enthusiastic as far as the efficiency and the role in the economy of the sector are concerned. Moreover, it is generally accepted that small businesses are strongly influenced by external environment as opposite to the bigger companies that can – to a certain degree – shape the environment they operate in. So, due to their size the
SMEs would be particularly constrained by limited access to finance, cumbersome bureaucratic procedures, poor technical infrastructure and lack of effective institutional support. The identification of the discriminative impact of the external environment on the SMEs is the base for numerous recommendation for institutional support. The promotion of the SMEs is to compensate weaker position of small organizations in a market and to mobilize their positive impact on the economy. The research made by Michalczuk [2009] among entrepreneurs in Poland in the end of the previous decade could be a good representation of the approach. The study revealed quite a long list of external constraints that hampered the development of the SMEs (Table 1). In fact, the set of restraints does not differ much from this kind of elaborations made for other countries, regardless the level of economic development [OECD 2009].

**Table 1. Basic barriers of the SMEs development in Poland**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of a constrain</th>
<th>Basic features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>legal</td>
<td>unstable and unclear legal rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>conflict between European and Polish regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>complicated procedures of paying taxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capital</td>
<td>limited access to external sources of financing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>difficulties of MSMEs with a guarantees for bank loans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>limited access to public procurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fluctuations of currency exchange rates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>market</td>
<td>rising competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>limited demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>political</td>
<td>unfriendly government policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>excessive fiscalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>complicated tax system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unclear tax regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>limited state support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information</td>
<td>limited access to information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lack of economic information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lack of information on activities of public authorities, infrastructure development, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the difficulty and high cost of access to infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social</td>
<td>low mobility of the labor market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lack of acceptance of self-employment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Michalczuk 2009.

On the other hand, there are quite a few studies that point at the weaknesses of the small business both from the point of view of their development potential and their impact on the economy. They mostly point at poor employment conditions in the SMEs, lower wages, poor innovativeness of the majority of micro and small enterprises, low exports potential and high sensitivity to the negative impact of external factors [por. Bąkiewicz 2010, 2012a; Matejun 2007; Piasecki 1998]. Poor human capital and managerial qualifi-
cations together with high barriers to the access to information are identified as one of the most important weaknesses of small organizations [Domińiak 2005]. As those factors have direct impact on the possibility of acquiring customers and making a commercial success, so they determine the survival and development of a company. They might also put into question the positive impact if the SMEs on the overall economic system. The above contradictory statements on the development potential of SMEs together with the great expectation concerning the functioning of SMEs in an economy make the research on the characteristics of small businesses quite a challenging task.

Secondly, the case of Polish economy has some important futures that deserves our attention. As far as we know the size structure of an enterprise sector depends on many factors [Bąkiewicz 2012b]. But, the position of SMEs in the economy of Poland is quite unusual because of the economic transformation that has taken place in the latest quarter of a century (Figure 1). The model describes the transformation of the enterprise sector shaped in the era of communism to the structure characteristic of mature market economies. Following the model of size structure transformation the large and micro enterprises have been losing their shares in the economy for the benefit of small and medium enterprises. At the 1st stage the economy is dominated by the state owned large companies and only few private workshops operate on the edge of the economic system. In the intermediate period numerous very small enterprises (i.e. micro enterprises) are being established and they gradually take over the area formerly occupied by large companies. Such a dual structure – with a visible gap in the middle size companies is typical for underdeveloped economic system, too. At the final – mature stage of size structure development, the system is built out of companies of different sizes. The model suggests that the analysis of the position and the role of SMEs in Polish economy should take into account historic background of the size structure of the enterprise sector.

Figure 1. Size structure of enterprises – from central planning to market economy

Source: Bąkiewicz 2012b.
Thirdly, some latest studies on the performance of SMEs during the crisis seem to be very inspiring. Among the most stimulating is the research made by Klein [2014] that investigates the relation between the size of the SMEs sector together with the specificity of small businesses and the macroeconomic performance of European economies during the global financial crisis. The research is based on the premises that the SMEs have limited access the external financing. In particular, during the financial crisis the credit supply is being especially restricted by the banking sector so the small businesses have poor settings to cope with the crises and to restore their dynamics. And, the conclusion is that the financial crisis is especially harmful for small businesses and the later hinder the economy to get out of the crisis. Moreover, the bigger the SMEs sector in an economy the longer and deeper the economic depression. This mechanism is to make small businesses responsible for the prolonged recession in European economies. Summing up, the up to date concepts related to the activities of the SMEs offer quite an inspiring base for studying the performance of the sector during the economic slowdown.

The SMEs in Polish economy

According to the law of 1999, the enterprise sector in Poland is divided into four size categories (Table 2). The definition takes into account both employment and turnover limits and meets the EU standards.

Table 2. Definition of SME in Poland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Employment</th>
<th>Turnover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Micro</td>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>Up to 2 million Euro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>10–49</td>
<td>2–10 million Euro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>50–249</td>
<td>10–50 million Euro</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: EUROSTAT 2015.

The statistics of the enterprises of different size show that the majority of firms in Poland are very small ones (Table 3). More than 95 per cent of enterprises employ less than 10 workers. Small enterprises account for 3.56 per cent of enterprises and medium firms constitute almost 1 per cent. Large enterprises make up only 0.19 per cent of enterprises. As in any other economy, in terms of numbers SMEs predominate in the business sector in Poland. The shares of SMEs in employment and value added are visibly smaller than their shares in the number of enterprises. SMEs employ less than 70 per labor force in non-financial sector and produce slightly more than half of value added. This is consistent with the universal rule that TFP (total factor productivity) in SMEs is lower than the one in LEs [Bąkiewicz 2010].
Table 3. Size structure of enterprise sector in Poland and European Union, 2015, per cent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>size class</th>
<th>Number of enterprises</th>
<th>Number of employment</th>
<th>Value added</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>EU-28</td>
<td>Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>95.27</td>
<td>92.29</td>
<td>36.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–49</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>13.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–249</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>18.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250+</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>30.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All SMEs</td>
<td>99.81</td>
<td>99.98</td>
<td>69.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: EUROSTAT 2015.

This above relations between the number of firms, employment and value added can be partly explained by the branch structure of the companies of different size as the SMEs operate mostly on labor-intensive sectors (Figure 1). SMEs are strongly represented across all sectors with the exception of financial services and capital-intensive sectors like energy and cement production. The VA share of Polish SMEs is especially high (above 50%) in construction, retail trade, hotels, restaurants and property administration.

Figure 2. Branch structure of enterprises of different size in Poland, 2012

Source: ECORYS 2013.

As far as the European comparisons of the size structure of the business sector is concerned available data suggest that micro enterprises are much more numerous in Poland than in EU (Table 2). Polish SMEs compared to their European rivals have also smaller share in production: 50 per cent in Poland

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1 Eurostat’s structural business statistics cover the ‘business economy’, which includes industry, construction and many services (Sections B to N and Division 95); financial and insurance activities (Section K) are treated separately within structural business statistics because of their specific nature and the limited availability of most types of standard business statistics in this area. As such, the term ‘non-financial business economy’ is generally used to refer to those economic activities covered by Sections B to J and L to N and Division 95 and the units that carry out those activities. Structural business statistics do not cover agriculture, forestry and fishing, nor public administration and (largely) non-market services, such as education or health [EUROSTAT 2015].
and 58 per cent in EU-27 although they offer slightly more jobs (69.15%) than the EU-average (67.95%). It means that the efficiency of SME sector in Poland is much lower than EU average. The above comparisons confirm our expectations that SMEs sector in Poland is less developed than its European counterparts. The difference is still visible, but it should be marked here that there is a clear tendency of the SMEs sector in Poland to catch up with the European standards as the dynamic development has been recorded since the beginning of the transformation in Poland after 1989 [Bąkiewicz 2012b].

As we can see, the share of large enterprises in an economy is much higher in Poland than the European average. Following the findings of Klein [2014], it might explain relatively good records of Polish economy during the global financial crisis. It might also suggest that thanks to the outdated size structure of the enterprises sector and the small share of SMEs in Polish economy the weaknesses of the SMEs have not plunged the economy into crisis.

The macroeconomic symptoms of the global financial crisis

The signs of the global financial crisis have been well described in the economic literature [Bourke 2014, Steinerowska-Streb 2011]. The key noteworthy macroeconomic developments since 2008 were observed in the area of finances, production and demand. It was manifested by the drop of gross domestic production, employment and income. It was also accompanied by the sharp decline in gross capital formation (housing, structures, plant and equipment) and much stronger growth in exports of goods and services than in final domestic demand in most EU economies.

The economic slowdown changed the business environment through the inhibitions or declines in consumer spending and government spending, increased competition, the reduction of the supply of external financing and the deterioration in of financial liquidity of many companies related to this [Czerwińska-Lubszczyk, Michna 2013]. The funds available for companies for investments and production growth were significantly reduced. The rise of the costs of deposits, the deterioration of the climate for investments, loss of confidence in financial markets were also important for the reduction of the availability of credit after the collapse of the Lehman Brothers Bank. The rise of uncertainty in the market forced many banks to tighten the credit risk assessment criteria. Sharp reduction in the level of economic downturn and rising unemployment also reduced demand for goods and services. It all resulted in the deterioration of the financial outcomes of the companies and increased rate of bankruptcy. Taking the above into consideration it is not surprising that even in Poland, where the financial crisis was relatively mild, almost ¾ of the companies perceived the crisis as an important factor that negatively affected their operations [Zelek 2011].
The depth of the economic downturn contrasted sharply among EU Member States. Among the East-European economies Hungary and Romania were especially seriously hit by the crisis, and the other countries of the region as Czech Republic and Slovakia, were hardly touched by the economic slowdown. For Poland the manifestations of the crisis were rather slight and the economy maintained the positive rate of growth over the entire period of the slowdown [GUS 2014]. GDP growth in Poland dropped from more than 6% in 2006 and 2007, 5,1% in 2008, to 1,6% in 2009, 3,9% in 2010, 4,5% in 2012, 2,0% in 2013 and 1,6% in 2014. More, domestic demand (adjusted for inflation) was higher in 2013 than in 2008 in only a handful of countries (Germany, Luxembourg, Sweden, Poland, and to a lesser extent, France, Belgium and Austria) and the difference was the highest in Poland (7%) compared to average -4% for EU-28. The export change 2008–2013 was positive in the majority of EU members, with the average 7% for EU-28 and 20% for Poland. Summing up, Polish economy was one of not many that experienced rather shallow economic decline and fast recovery from the crisis.

The performance of small and medium enterprises in Poland during the economic slowdown

The statistics show that just before the crisis the dynamics of the SMEs were significantly higher than in the rest of the economy [GUS 2015]. As we know, it is the part of the long-term trend of the Polish economy that started with the transformation from the centrally planned economy and leads to being like the structure developed in high-income European economies [Figure 1]. And, the very first months of the crisis strongly hit the SMEs and the later were responsible for the majority of bankruptcies in Poland. At that time the number of the SMEs decreased remarkably and the micro- and small enterprises were mostly responsible for this (Table 4). The number of medium and large enterprises did not change much in 2009. And, in the longer term – up to 2015, the number of enterprises was restored mainly in the small companies sector whereas the large enterprises and also medium size firms lost the most. It seems that the smallest companies were more sensitive to the economic shock compared the larger enterprises, that were more resistant.

Table 4. Number of enterprises in Poland, non-financial sector, 2008–2015

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>1464</td>
<td>1358</td>
<td>92.75</td>
<td>1392</td>
<td>1431</td>
<td>1426</td>
<td>1407</td>
<td>1397</td>
<td>1387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>089</td>
<td>017</td>
<td></td>
<td>002</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>780</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–49</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>93.05</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>403</td>
<td>985</td>
<td></td>
<td>758</td>
<td>021</td>
<td>698</td>
<td>676</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>900</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The employment in non-financial sector in 2009 was reduced by 3.5% [NBP 2009]. In the same year the number of enterprises which raised their employment was approx. 35% that is 10 percentage points less than in 2008. The loss of dynamics was recorded in the first three quarters of the year and in the latest quarter the employment started to grow again. In the beginning of the slowdown the reduction of employment in micro enterprises was the largest one. And, the medium enterprises were the most resistant to the external shock (Table 5). In the longer term the small enterprises only regained their employment level. The large enterprises recorded the biggest loss of employment in the longer period (more than 11 percentage points between 2008 and 2015).

Table 5. Number of people employed, non-financial sector, 2008–2015

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>3 214</td>
<td>3 048</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>2 998</td>
<td>2 908</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>3 046</td>
<td>658</td>
<td>3 007</td>
<td>504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–49</td>
<td>1 122</td>
<td>1 086</td>
<td>725</td>
<td>1 090</td>
<td>1 234</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>1 121</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>1 121</td>
<td>719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–249</td>
<td>1 629</td>
<td>1 621</td>
<td>901</td>
<td>1 607</td>
<td>1 577</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>1 559</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>1 550</td>
<td>409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250 +</td>
<td>2 701</td>
<td>2 617</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>2 644</td>
<td>2 593</td>
<td>557</td>
<td>2 567</td>
<td>479</td>
<td>2 570</td>
<td>479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8 667</td>
<td>8 374</td>
<td>993</td>
<td>8 340</td>
<td>8 351</td>
<td>748</td>
<td>8 291</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>8 186</td>
<td>580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All SMEs</td>
<td>5 966</td>
<td>5 757</td>
<td>561</td>
<td>5 696</td>
<td>5 758</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>5 724</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>5 679</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as the value added is concerned the drop in 2009 was the biggest in small and micro enterprises, but in other size classes of enterprises the reduction was also significant (Table 6). The small and large enterprises recorded the fastest recovery and came back to the pre-crisis production level in 2015. In the medium size class the recovery was moderate and the micro enterprises did not managed to regain the pre-crisis production level. The dramatic drop of investment was recorded in all size classes, both in short and long-term (Table 7).
Table 6. Value-added at factor costs million € in Poland, non-financial sector, 2008–2014

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>31 289</td>
<td>24 207</td>
<td>77.36</td>
<td>26 293</td>
<td>29 142</td>
<td>28 497</td>
<td>27 676</td>
<td>28 864</td>
<td>96.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–49</td>
<td>25 442</td>
<td>19 272</td>
<td>75.75</td>
<td>21 850</td>
<td>23 888</td>
<td>25 763</td>
<td>27 067</td>
<td>28 270</td>
<td>116.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–249</td>
<td>40 349</td>
<td>32 858</td>
<td>81.43</td>
<td>35 712</td>
<td>37 088</td>
<td>38 545</td>
<td>39 292</td>
<td>40 757</td>
<td>105.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250+</td>
<td>87 336</td>
<td>72 490</td>
<td>83.00</td>
<td>82 064</td>
<td>86 920</td>
<td>91 653</td>
<td>94 156</td>
<td>97 209</td>
<td>115.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>184 416</td>
<td>148 826</td>
<td>80.70</td>
<td>165 920</td>
<td>177 038</td>
<td>184 460</td>
<td>188 193</td>
<td>195 100</td>
<td>110.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All SMEs</td>
<td>97 079</td>
<td>76 336</td>
<td>78.63</td>
<td>83 856</td>
<td>90 119</td>
<td>92 805</td>
<td>94 035</td>
<td>97 891</td>
<td>105.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Źródło: EUROSTAT 2015.

Table 7. Gross investments in tangible goods million €

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>1,128</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>64.45</td>
<td>668</td>
<td>729</td>
<td>64.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–49</td>
<td>1,544</td>
<td>980</td>
<td>63.47</td>
<td>952</td>
<td>1,040</td>
<td>67.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–249</td>
<td>3,889</td>
<td>2,605</td>
<td>66.98</td>
<td>2,512</td>
<td>2,743</td>
<td>70.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250+</td>
<td>8,820</td>
<td>6,043</td>
<td>68.51</td>
<td>5,727</td>
<td>6,255</td>
<td>70.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15,381</td>
<td>10,354</td>
<td>67.32</td>
<td>9,859</td>
<td>10,768</td>
<td>70.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All SMEs</td>
<td>6,561</td>
<td>4,312</td>
<td>65.72</td>
<td>4,131</td>
<td>4,512</td>
<td>68.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Źródło: EUROSTAT 2015.

Summing up, analysis of the data on the number of enterprises, employment, production and investment that include the delamination of the non-financial businesses into four size classes enable us to build an interesting picture of the enterprise sector in Poland during the economic slowdown. First, the small enterprises recorded the strongest slowdown in the very first months of the crisis. And, in this sub-sector the recovery was the fastest and the final results were the most visible. In other words, the economic growth in the longer term was recorded mostly in small enterprises. It also confirms a big sensitivity of the small businesses to the external factors.

Second, the large enterprises were the second most active sector in Poland during the slowdown. The results of the crisis became visible with a few months delay and the recovery was then quite intensive. Although the sector lost much employment in 2009 it then regain the value added to the pre-crisis level. It might suggest that capital-intensive technology upgrading in the largest companies took place, so the crisis forced the modernization of the sub-sector.
Third, the micro enterprises managed to pass the crisis with a visible loss. As we know, many of them stay in a market regardless the production level as they are the only source of employment and income generation. But, following the development model of mature economies, they lose their share in production and the crisis seems the accelerate the process.

Finally, the records of medium size companies are rather disappointing. Their lost quite a lot of employment from 2008 level and did not managed to regain their pre-crisis production level up to 2014. It points at the weakness of this size class of enterprises in Poland. It contrasts with the developments typical for mature, high-income economies and confirms our expectations described above.

Final remarks

The analysis presented above provided a glimpse of the changes that took place in the non-financial enterprise sector in Poland during the latest global financial crisis. The most important results can be summarized as follows. The sector of SMEs as a whole coped pretty well with the economic slowdown. After rather deep but short-term decline, they quickly and strongly returned to the path of dynamic growth. But, the reaction of the companies within the sub-sectors were not homogenous one. The micro enterprises managed to stay in a market, but their economic condition deteriorated remarkably and in the final stage they lost their share in the economy. Small enterprises were the most sensitive to the crisis, but they managed to recover in the most vigorous way. The medium class withstood the crisis, but one might have an impression that they did not use the opportunity to modernize. The later has come to the large scale enterprises, as they lost their share in number and size of employment but they regained their share in production.

Further analysis should find out which factors were responsible for such a layout of the changes in non-financial sector in Poland. On the basis of the above presented statistics and the existing knowledge we can suppose here that the processes observed in the enterprise sector during the crisis reflect the specificity of the enterprises of different size and also fit the overall process of the development of the size structure after the collapse of the centrally planning system in Poland.

Concerning the consequences of the above findings for the economic policy during the crisis, one might suggest that the support for micro enterprises could be justified mainly on the basis of social arguments as the tiny establishments provide employment during the economic “hard times”. And, the small enterprises seem to be the most promising sub-sector of the economy that is worth administrative support as they contribute significantly to the economic recovery.
As far as the theoretical aspects are concerned the above findings suggest that the analysis of the SMEs as the homogenous entirety might produce general and somehow misleading conclusions. It might also partially explain the existing contradictions in the findings concerning the specificity of the SMEs and their functions in the economy. As we can see, there are remarkable differences – at least as far as the crisis resistance is concerned, between the micro, small and medium enterprises. And the reliable studies should definitely reflect this fact.

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The Administrative Process in the Fishing Cooperative

Introduction

The administrative process (PA) is the basic theoretical tool that allows the administrator to understand the dynamics of running a business or organization. Used to design it, conceptualize, manage, improve, etc. The PA gives the methodology consistent to organize a company and facilitate their management and control [Hernandez and Rodriguez 2012, p. 165].

The development of this process requires several stages. Munch [2010] mentions that the stages are planning, organization, integration, management and control. To Terry and Franklin [2010] are planning, organization, execution and control. According to Hernandez and Rodriguez [2012] phases are planning, organizing, directing and controlling. And according to Koontz, Weihrich and Cannice [2008] are planning, organization, integration, management and control. As noted, the authors differ in the stages of the administrative process, agreeing in some of them. Planning, organizing, directing and controlling: For this investigation was studied the four stages posed by Hernandez and Rodriguez [2012].

The administrative process is present in any organization, as well as in the cooperative. The cooperative society is a form of organization, composed of individuals based on common interests and the principles of solidarity, self-help and mutual aid, in order to satisfy individual and collective needs through the realization of economic production activities, distribution and consumption of goods and services (Article 2, General Law of Cooperative Societies – LGSC).

Cooperatives may freely engage in any lawful business activity and its operation, must observe the principles of freedom of association and voluntary withdrawal from membership, democratic management, limited inte-
rest to the contributions of the partners, the distribution of yields in proportion to the participation of the partners, the promotion of cooperative education and education in the solidarity economy, participation in cooperative integration; respect the individual right of members to belong to any political party or religious association and promotion of ecological culture.

This article presents the results of study whose main objective was to analyze the administrative process in the fishing cooperative located in the rural community The Arenitas, in the state of Sinaloa, Mexico. The research was conducted under the qualitative paradigm to analyze the subject in depth and explain the specificity of the reality studied.

Data collection was conducted through semi structured interviews with cooperative members currently occupying the position of director, and who occupied the same position in prior periods; fieldwork was complemented with the analysis of internal documents of the cooperative, such as minutes of meetings, work plans, bylaws of the cooperative and accountant’s activity reports and managers.

Development

In Mexico, a rural community is one that has fewer than 2,500 inhabitants. Nationally, the proportion of people living in rural communities has decreased. In 1950, it represented just over 57% of the population; in 1990 it was 29% and by 2010, this figure decreased to settle at 22% [INEGI 2014].

Rural communities are characterized by developing primary economic activities, i.e. living from agriculture, livestock, and fisheries, among others and depend on the use of natural resources available in its communities.

In the case of Mexican fishing cooperatives, they are engaged in the production, purchase, distribution, processing of goods, products and services related to the exploitation of marine products and activities that seek to improve the lives of those who integrate them.

Mexico has 11,592.77 kilometers of coastline, of which correspond to 8475.06 of the Pacific coast and 3117.71 of the Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean Sea, including islands; its continental shelf is about 394.603 km², has 12,500 km² of coastal lagoons and estuaries and has 6,500 km² of inland waters (lakes, ponds, and rivers). On its establishment in 1976 the rate of 200 nautical miles “exclusive economic zone”, remain under national jurisdiction 2,946, 885 km² national marine region.

The fisheries sector in Mexico is composed of the social sector, the private sector and the public sector, with a working population of over 200,000 people. The fishery production cooperatives that make up the first sector, had reserved the eight species of higher value on commercial fisheries (shrimp, lobster, abalone, clams, oysters, croaker, grouper and turtle, but from 1977 the social sector had focused its activities on species of popular consumption).
Sinaloa is the most important agricultural state of Mexico; additionally, has the second-largest fishing fleet. It is located in a naturally fertile region, has 11 rivers and 12 dams, with 622 kilometers of coastline belonging mostly to the Gulf of California and the rest of the Pacific Ocean, in addition to 12 bay and 15 estuaries [INEGI, 2014]. In the bays, lagoons and estuaries it is practiced fishery activities such as: catch shrimp, grouper, marlin, crappie, bream and smooth; and the collection of oyster and clam paw mule, these resources are used for feeding the Sinaloa families and placed on the domestic market and export to other countries, especially the shrimp.

The cooperative fisheries organization studio was founded in September 1988, is currently composed of a total of 64 members, who live in the fishing community The Arenitas, where is held the principal activity of the organization, which corresponds to the extraction, capture and commercial exploitation of shrimp estuary in federal waters of the lagoon system Altata-Ensenada Bay Pavilion, Sinaloa, during the period from September to March each year.

The regulations of the cooperative indicates that for membership, should preferably be a fisher of coastal craft and have the sole livelihood fishing; a fisherman resident at the registered office of the cooperative and further develop compatible fishing activities; not belong to any other cooperative society to develop similar activities; provide regular and permanent staff working in the activities that constitute the corporate purpose; be enrolled in the National Register of fishing and subscribe at least a certificate of contribution, among others.

The capital of the cooperative society integrates with input from partners and yields the general assembly agreed intended to increase it. Members can be excluded by performing the tasks assigned without the required intensity and quality; for failure to consistently form of the obligations under the constituent bases without sufficient cause or repeated violation of the provisions of the Act, of the constituent bases, the rules of society, of the resolutions of the General Assembly and the agreements issued by the board.

Regarding his administration, the General Cooperative Societies Act (LGSC) is the principal regulations governing the conduct of their duties and states that you must have a General Assembly, as the main responsible for the work of the organization, for it is necessary to appoint a board of directors.

Being incorporated under LGSC, the cooperative has a general assembly, a board of directors represented by a president, a secretary and a treasurer and a monitoring president. Its production is primarily intended to supply the domestic market, through the best buyer, since they have an exclusive buyer, as each season to work best for them. These buyers are engaged in export and marketing of fisheries products in the domestic market, these
companies sell their products primarily to food service distributors, such as restaurants and retail and supermarket chains.

Empirical evidence indicates that currently, in the cooperative, 85% of members are 30 years old or older and 15% of the partners are in the range of 18–28 years old, this is because new generations have used study opportunities that are near the town.

The education of fishermen is a factor that influences the way to run an organization. Currently 86% have primary education and secondary level, which can be interpreted as a limitation of the partners, specifically managers to make effective and efficient way functions also not defined methodology and techniques used.

In relation to members, who have occupied since management at some period, 93% said they received no training, while 7% did receive; it is clear that respondents who did receive training, when asked what subjects indicated that they were prepared in various topics such as management of species, fishing gear, sustainable development of rural communities, among others, identifying the administration of the cooperative is run by people who do not have the training to perform management positions and go from being fishermen managers who have no idea of the activities that the representative of the associate.

The fishermen with experience in the management of the cooperative indicate that the performance of its function rely on the person who operates as an accountant for the organization, as it is who has information and has more training regarding how to administer a cooperative, meaning that the fisherman – Management bases its decisions and the performance of its functions, as the accountant recommended.

In addition, partners were asked – managers, how was your experience and 54% said it was easy and 46% said it was difficult; and agree that the main problems they faced was due to the lack of knowledge to perform their functions, but also to low production and use of natural resources. Fishermen – executives added that after two years that remained to be responsible for the cooperative, learned how to manage, but had to give their jobs to new management.

Regarding the administrative process that occurs in the fishing cooperative, it uses planning as to define the actions of the cooperative throughout the year, meet in assembly to draw up the annual work plan, which was submitted for consideration of all partners and vote to decide its design; derivative plan, develop a work program in which guidelines for the number of fishermen per boat are established; kilos in total production is delivered to the cooperative as a contribution to the collective production; capture dates and hours of work and role to play, for each of the members.
Regarding the organization of the cooperative, the members establish agreements for the development of capture and marketing of the species, which means that each fisherman clearly knows his work and responsibility to the cooperative; are organized into sub-groups to make information more smoothly. While fishermen managerial position, are responsible for the management and supervision, the remaining fishermen must make the catch of species, according to the provisions by all.

The partners developed the roadmap for a season of six months, or as long as the Regional Centre for Fisheries Research of Inapesca, authorize the shrimp catch. A chairman of the board of directors and a president enforcement surveillance that meets agreed in the plan, is named in that season if something went as planned, make a plan differently for next season work, learning through trial and error.

The work plan changes every season and worked seeking to improve the results of shrimp fishing season prior period.

Regarding the organizational structure of the cooperative, interviewees noted that know the hierarchical structure of society, know what positions to be occupied and functions that everyone is responsible to do are; however, most managers indicated that these functions are unknown, and the post of chairman of the board of directors were disseminated through the statutes. They agreed that information on the functions they learn through accountant who is who announces their activities or experience that partners are acquiring.

Regarding the communication within the cooperative, all respondents agree that communication is present through various means, such as notices on premises, memos warning, telephone although sometimes not reported widely and clear about the results of the meetings and the activities. They also agree that decisions are made considering all cooperative members as each of them participates in meetings of the assembly, in which each partner casts their vote.

On the control of the activity that takes place in the cooperative managers agree that there are no standards or indicators that are useful to guide the implementation of the actions set out in the work plan; the main culprit is the monitoring president, who oversees the partners and prepares a report in which the performance and compliance work plan is shown.

Conclusions

In Mexico, the cooperative is an organization identified in the group of social organizations, which is linked to the surrounding community; philosophy of these organizations focuses on solidarity and mutual benefit of both members and residents of the community, with the expectation of improved quality of life. The cooperative conducts an active participation in community life.
In Sinaloa, Mexico, cooperative societies fish production are generally located in disadvantaged areas of the economy, in order to help people in their economic and social development. Also, their main objective is to offer quality products, but mostly to report and distribute benefits between partners, since these partners are involved in both production tasks as in direction.

Members of the cooperative are people who develop a common activity, in this case engaged in fishing for different species of sea, and decide on a voluntary act involvement and inclusion, considering exactly the same rights and obligations for each of them, and that no single owner of the organization, but they all have a say in the decisions of the cooperative.

With respect to the phases of the administrative process according to Hernandez and Rodriguez [2012] planning takes into account information from the past of the company and its environment, allowing you to organize, direct and measure its overall performance and that of its members by comparing its controls planned with what has been done; in that sense, the fishing cooperative uses the design work plans with short-term horizon, considering the experiences of previous periods and government regulation to catch marine species, through which it was possible to know how to work and production levels; on the other hand ensure the fulfillment of objectives, develop plans to meet the emerging needs of its members and in order to establish lines of action for future seasons for harvesting.

The elements most commonly used in cooperative planning are mentioned by Koontz, Weihrich and Cannice [2008]: mission, objectives or goals, strategies, policies, rules, procedures, programs and budgets. The authors argue that the mission is responsible for identifying the basic purpose, function or tasks of a company or agency or any part thereof. In the cooperative society its main purpose is to catch shrimp and commercialization dates authorized by the CRIP; that purpose is established formally in the charter of the cooperative, as it indicated that the purpose of the company is the extraction, catch, fishing and generally collectively the different species to authorize the Secretaría de Pesca (Ministry of Fishing).

The objectives are the ends toward which the activity is directed. Goals can be short or long, broad or specific, but the main concern is that the objectives are verifiable, this means that at the end of the period should be possible to determine whether objectives were achieved or not. In the fishing cooperative are short-term objectives, and an example is the approach that each partner delivers to the cooperative at least 50% of shrimp caught, percentage defined in relation to the partner who had the highest production season.

According to Koontz, Weihrich and Cannice [2008], policies are general statements or understandings that guide or channel in decision-making. One
of the policies of the cooperative work is that in making decisions all the members that make up the assembly and each of them has a say and where the majority that decides should participate. Regarding rules, they establish specific actions needed, or lack of action, which will not allow deviations exist. For example, respondent’s partners agreed that if a partner is accused and convicted of theft, is suspended from the cooperative.

Regarding the organizational phase, the fishing cooperative has a definite hierarchical structure. Article 43 of the General Cooperative Societies Act says: The Board of Directors shall consist of at least a president, a secretary and a vowel. Article 46 speaks of the supervisory board, based on the above identifies that the cooperative complies with the structure required by the regulations of these types of organizations.

Reyes Ponce [2011] tells us that the last step taken with the organization, once established various departments and levels, is the precise definition of what should be done in each work unit. This particular work unit cell of all economic and social life in the company - called post. The position can be defined as a specific unit of impersonal work. According to Koontz, Weirich, & Mark [2012], job description sets out the basic function of the position, the main areas of achievement of which the individual is responsible; in the case of the fishing cooperative, organizational structure regulated by the LGSC, is met in full and appointing a fisherman responsible for each of the posts required for operation; while the responsibility of each of the members comprising it, are laid down in the statutes. It is clear that in the cooperative society occupy positions are represented by both management positions and commissions to be developed for the fulfillment of the purposes of the organization; at the same time every fisherman knows, through its statutes, their responsibilities as members.

According to Hernandez and Rodriguez [2002] the organization has nine principles: Principle of division of labor, the principle of authority and responsibility, principle of primacy of authority over the advisory linear, top policymaker, delegation principle, principle of unity of command, principle of hierarchy or chain of command, span of control principle, principle of equity in workload.

Principle of division of labor, as there is an administrative board, each with corresponding functions of these principles in the cooperative three met. Authority rules, because there are rules, established laws for the common good of the cooperative, the best organization and management of it. The hierarchy or chain of command, but also the partners who are not managers also have authority within the cooperative there are some people who represent hierarchy be in front of the cooperative, to the other partners must respect. It is difficult to achieve all the objectives because the way of working
of a cooperative is different from a company. In the cooperative there is not delegation of work, nor span of control, because they have to report back to a specific pattern.

According to Reyes Ponce [2011] is a very usual practice to elaborate manuals by department in an organization, as this level favors their size and usefulness. In the fishing cooperative there is not a single manual; managers agree that to take their places, received verbally, indicating their new responsibilities, which indicates that cooperative activities are carried out with an informal approach.

In the third stage direction, we find communication as an important part to lead the company as it is through it that can inform others, guide them, orientate them, etc. Accordingly to Hernandez and Rodriguez [2002], they give the following classification of communication: Horizontal communication is that which takes place between people of the same hierarchy. It occur when a meeting is attended or formally speaking with a fellow peer. This communication is present in cooperative communication as there is in all positions. Vertical communication; it is flowing between boss-subordinate and is carried through the chain of command. Channels must be respected and no “jump” to a superior. This communication is also present because the cooperative information flows from top to bottom, i.e., the president of administration communicates to the other partners.

Formal communication is transmitted information in ascending or descending order to address a matter of working in an organization between two or more people. Among its communication activities include: issuing offices, phone calls, go or run together, agreeing with your boss or colleagues. In the cooperative, gather for agreements, decisions, everyone participates, not just managers. And communication is presented by the president of administration towards the other partners and vice versa.

Informal communication is that which is present in the organization to discuss foreign affairs of the organization, such as daily news, sports scores, and so on. This communication is also experienced in the cooperative since there is always information sharing that is external to topics related to the cooperative, also presents the coexistence between partners. The rumor and gossip also appears in the cooperative, both are in most cases, factors that cause conflicts among members of the cooperative.

Thus when conflict occurs in the cooperative action is needed on the matter and take necessary measures to do so partners take decisions to resolve conflicts between all or any other decision that is made. For example when you want to fire a partner, the decision was put to vote and the majority decides. Decisions were also taken to develop the work plan. The planning is done each year in the assembly work plan where members of the cooperati-
The plan being voted involved. As the length of the board is 2 years, presidents make decisions that affect that period only, do not make decisions that impact in the future.

Regarding the control stage, Hernandez and Rodriguez [2002] indicate that the control is a vital element of an administrative system, allowing businesses to self-regulate and maintain its development in the desired terms, from planning. Meanwhile Robbins & Coulter [2005] says that control is the process of monitoring activities to ensure that they perform as planned and correct any significant deviation. All managers should be involved in the control function, although their units are performing as planned.

The second definition describes a certain way what happens in the cooperative as monitoring president is in charge of overseeing the activities to ensure that they perform as planned and thereby correct deviations. This person watching the partners, ask them how they go about their tasks, their attention when they are doing things wrong, and performs a general report and delivers it to the president of administration.

Hernandez and Rodriguez [2002] talk about standards, indicators and benchmarks that help you keep track of the organization and to make measurements and comparisons. In this regard the cooperative does not have these elements, so that the evaluation and control of the activities performed and the daily production is reported as difficult, it is more difficult to identify the growth or decline of the cooperative to the passage of the years.

The fishing cooperative has established production criteria, i.e., no amount for fishermen to catch few kilos of water species, everyone fishes what they want and can. And those amounts are reported in the cooperative to keep track of every fisherman.

Based on the above, it may be noted that the administrative process experienced by the fishing cooperative manifests from various elements that demonstrate the implementation of planning, organizing, directing and controlling. The main features in stages: planning with horizon in the short term, the development stage informally, serving domestic legislation, through the statutes of the organization, and external regulations defined by dependencies government link with which to be authorized for the capture process species.

The fishing cooperative is an organization that develops economic activities with a social sense, which seeks to provide its partners, an organized way for production and wealth generation, enabling them to aspire to improve the quality of life of its members as of the inhabitants of the community in which it operates.
Bibliografía


Estrategias Organizacionales de la Hotelería en el Sector del Turismo de Negocios en México

Introducción
El turismo en México es considerado una actividad fundamental para el desarrollo económico del país y, una de las principales a nivel mundial. Particularmente, el turismo de negocios se encuentra en crecimiento, por lo que es común ver cómo los diferentes destinos turísticos así como los gobiernos estatales orientan sus estrategias hacia este segmento. Existen diversas ventajas del mismo, entre ellas que regula la estacionalidad de la demanda turística, favorece la ocupación en temporadas bajas, eleva el gasto promedio por persona de los visitantes, aumenta la estancia promedio en el país y contribuye a mejorar la actividad comercial en los destinos.

Un tipo de organización que atiende a este segmento son las empresas hoteleras, las cuales se encuentran ante un mercado altamente competitivo, globalizado, con nuevas formas de hacer negocios, con tecnología que avanza rápidamente y una brecha significativa entre sus competidores, aunado a ello, un entorno macroeconómico de gran incertidumbre. Ante un cambianto entorno, su principal desafío es el estratégico, ya que este debe responder a nuevas formas de competencias surgidas por el cambio en las condiciones económicas nacionales e internacionales.
Para permanecer y crecer en la industria, estas empresas se han visto obligadas a establecer estrategias que les permitan atender demandas específicas, es decir, definir con claridad y oportunidad los caminos que deben seguir para distinguirse de otras y participar con la preparación requerida en el medio en que se desarrollan; se trata del reforzamiento de herramientas que les garanticen un mejor desempeño ante las exigencias del medio ambiente externo.

Esta estrategia debe ser enfocada a la creación de competencias distintivas que le permitan a la hotelería alcanzar una posición diferenciada respecto a sus competidores, haciéndolos esenciales, lo que conlleva a un aumento de rentabilidad. Por ello, en el presente trabajo se analizan las estrategias que permiten a la empresa hotelera del turismo de negocios ser eficiente y alcanzar el éxito, con el propósito de brindar soluciones oportunas a estas organizaciones asegurando su permanencia en el mercado.

Desarrollo

Para la realización de la presente investigación fue necesario revisar diversas teorías y conceptos que permitieran hacer una aproximación a la explicación de los elementos y aspectos sobre las estrategias organizacionales determinantes del éxito de la hotelería en el turismo de negocios, por lo que a continuación son abordadas mediante diferentes autores.

El turismo se considera una actividad social de carácter complejo, así como un conjunto de relaciones y fenómenos producidos por el desplazamiento y permanencia de personas fuera de su lugar de residencia, motivadas por una actividad no lucrativa [Acerenza 1999]. Por su parte, la Organización Mundial de Turismo considera que es un fenómeno social, cultural y económico que implica el traslado de viajeros a países o lugares distintos al de su entorno habitual, a efectos prácticos, personales o de negocios / profesional [UNWTO 2014].

Con base en estas definiciones, se expone que el turismo es un fenómeno social, económico y cultural que involucra a turistas que se trasladan a una ciudad (distinta a la de su residencia) que viajan con el propósito de realizar actividades de diversos tipos entre ellos personales, de negocios o profesionales.

Entre las principales organizaciones que pertenecen al sector de turismo, se encuentran las de transporte, restauración, agencias de viajes y hotelería. Estas últimas con el paso del tiempo, han representado para México una fuente significativa de empleo, debido a que generan el 14% empleos, entre directos e indirectos, de la planta productiva del país; el impacto en la economía es del 8.4% del PIB, porque no solamente se generan empleos en el hotel, sino aquellos relacionados con la industria turística como el transporte, las
tiendas de artesanías, los guías de turistas, el restaurante, etcétera; y, se consideran la columna vertebral de la actividad turística del mundo [De la Cruz 2014].

De acuerdo con Muñoz [1994], la hotelería es una rama del turismo que comprende aquellos establecimientos destinados a proporcionar, mediante un precio, habitación o residencia, con o sin otros servicios complementarios, en épocas, zonas o situaciones turísticas. A esta definición, Valls [2003] le agrega la característica que este servicio se realiza de forma provisional.

Para Lockwood [1997], los hoteles son los elementos principales de la industria turística, los cuales ofrecen una serie de características tales como ubicación, clima, decoración, cortesía del personal y varios servicios para hacer sentir al cliente como “huéspedes”. A su vez, el producto que ofrece un hotel está formado por una combinación de elementos tangibles e intangibles relacionados tanto con las características físicas de la prestación y el contacto interpersonal que se produce durante la estancia.

El segmento primordial del hotel estudiado en la presente investigación pertenece al turismo de negocios, entendiéndose este concepto como aquel viaje realizado a otra ciudad, a una distancia de más de 50 kilómetros de la localidad de origen, estrictamente determinados por eventos o propósito educativos [ICCA 2013]; a lo que SECTUR [2002] define como el conjunto de corrientes turísticas cuyo motivo de viaje está vinculado con la realización de actividades laborales y profesionales.

El turismo de negocios incluye numerosos segmentos y productos relacionados con la organización de reuniones de negocios con diferentes propósitos y magnitudes a saber tales como congresos, exposiciones, convenciones, entre otros [Yarto 2007].

En este sentido, este sector requiere delinear estrategias en busca de permanecer en el mercado, ya que como menciona el autor Chandler [1962], la estrategia es determinante en los objetivos básicos a largo plazo de una empresa, y en la adopción de cursos de acción así como la asignación de recursos necesarios para la realización de estos objetivos; asimismo, estas estrategias son el ajuste entre lo que la compañía puede hacer, sus fuerzas y debilidades, con lo que la compañía debería hacer, es decir las oportunidades y amenazas del entorno [Andrews 1971].

Ansoff [1965] comenta que la estrategia es la expresión operacional de políticas en el sentido de que, dentro de un sistema administrativo define el criterio operacional sobre la base de cuales programas específicos pueden ser concebidos, seleccionados e implementados; es importante destacar que la estrategia, como menciona Porter [1996], significa ser diferente, escoger deliberadamente un conjunto diferente de actividades para brindar una mezcla única de valor.
Como puede apreciarse, para estos autores es de suma importancia descubrir los puntos fuertes de la organización para poder dar valor al producto que se vende; en las definiciones anteriores aparecen aspectos en los cuales coinciden los científicos, por lo que puede afirmarse que la estrategia en la hotelería originará lineamientos de asignación de recursos apoyándose en sus puntos fuertes y en función de las características del medio ambiente para atender de manera eficaz al turista de negocios.

Resultados

La hotelería en México se encuentra constituida por 18,199 establecimientos aproximadamente; la actividad a nivel Nacional creció un 0.98% en 2013 con respecto al año anterior, superando los 68 millones de turistas [DATATUR 2014]. Estas cifras demuestran el crecimiento que ha tenido la actividad hotelera en el periodo comprendido de 2012 al año 2013; aunque han existido altas y bajas, el promedio al cierre de 2013 ha sido positivo. Así mismo, la procedencia de los turistas ha sido del extranjero, aproximadamente el 78%, y el 22% restante son turistas nacionales [DATATUR 2014].

Considerando la categorización de estrellas, el tamaño del sector hotelero en este país se ha ido fortaleciendo; en ese sentido, de acuerdo a datos proporcionados por el Compendio Estadístico del Turismo en México (CETM), se cuenta con 672,296 cuartos concentrados en 18,199 hoteles. Existen más de medio millón de habitaciones, de las cuales el 81.2% son de calidad de una a cinco estrellas y el resto sin categoría. De la misma manera, el 63.65% son establecimientos hoteleros de categoría una a cinco estrellas y 36.34% sin categoría; por lo anterior, se percibe la preocupación por parte de los hoteleros por categorizar sus empresas, y ofrecer a los turistas información que determine las amenidades del hotel [CETM 2013].

Actualmente para el viajero, específicamente de negocios, es importante conocer con anticipación la categoría de estrellas con las que cuenta el hotel, debido a que este es un aspecto que le proporciona información relevante para decidir en qué hotel hospedarse. La gran mayoría de este tipo de turistas se hospeda en hoteles clasificados como cinco estrellas, debido a que los establecimientos de alojamiento de esta categoría deben cumplir con una serie de requisitos relacionados con la infraestructura, servicio, empleados, entre otros, mismos que les facilitan su estadía.

De acuerdo a cifras proporcionadas por el Instituto Mexicano para la Competitividad (IMCO), el turismo se encuentra en crecimiento y es parte fundamental del crecimiento de la hotelería; en específico, representa para la nación un ingreso de casi 18 mil millones de dólares anuales. Aunque solamente un 4% del total de turistas lo hacen por negocios, el ingreso que genera este segmento de mercado representa el 16% del consumo de viajeros [IMCO 2013].
Se hace resaltar la relevancia que tiene el turismo de negocios, ya que de acuerdo con el ranking de eventos internacionales de ICCA (International Congress and Convention Association), México ocupa el lugar 23 a nivel global [ICCA 2013]; su contribución al Producto Interno Bruto es de 1.43 por ciento y genera 151,100 empleos [FORBES 2013]. Por otra parte, el desembolso promedio de los turistas por viaje es mayor que otros segmentos; el IMCO (2013) señala que la persona que viaja por placer gasta 794.4 dólares; cuando visita a familiares desembolsa 476.7 dólares; con amistades su gasto es de 580.4 dólares; en tanto que en el turismo de negocios el gasto es de 510 dólares por viaje.

Dentro de este sector, la hotelería juega un papel fundamental dado que el servicio de alojamiento es un elemento básico de la oferta turística. Debida la importancia que tiene la hotelería y el turismo de negocios para el desarrollo económico de la nación, en este artículo se estudia una organización que pertenece a este segmento de mercado, un Hotel de cinco estrellas el cual se encuentra ubicado en la ciudad de Culiacán, Sinaloa, México.

Las estrategias que le han funcionado a la organización para atraer al segmento turismo de negocios, sector que se encuentra en rápido crecimiento, y que además les han permitido permanecer en el mercado a pesar de la competencia que surge día con día, son abordadas a continuación.

Primeramente, la infraestructura ha sido una estrategia que le ha ayudado a ser competitiva en su entorno, ya que para diferenciarse de las demás, es fundamental contar con las condiciones necesarias de infraestructura, mobiliario, instalaciones y equipo; este hotel se distingue por el ambiente laboral exclusivo, debido a que cuenta con un estilo de servicios considerado para el turismo de negocios, las habitaciones están orientadas a ofrecer al huésped lo necesario para trabajar como un escritorio y una silla ejecutiva, sillones para descansar o leer, acceso a Internet, cafetera y alarma reloj. Existe un centro de negocios, nueve salones para congresos equipados con pantalla retráctil y proyector, wifi y conexión a internet de alta velocidad; anualmente se realizan alrededor de 1 300 eventos de negocios entre los cuales destacan reuniones de trabajo, conferencias, capacitaciones, seminarios, etc.

Otra de las estrategias implementadas en el turismo de negocios, se encuentra alineada hacia la tecnología, misma que le ha ayudado en el logro de sus metas debido a que se considera en la actualidad una herramienta que ha modificado el sector hotelero y es fundamental en las reglas que rigen a la empresa así como en la forma de acercarse a los clientes. Este Hotel ofrece Wi-Fi de alta velocidad gratuito en cada uno de sus espacios; además, cuenta con diversos sistemas que le permiten eficientar sus procesos, entre ellos sistemas de reservación, de capacitación en línea, sistemas para administrar la empresa vía internet y para adquisiciones de compra desde su casa o organización. De igual manera se utiliza tecnología para la comunicación entre
los colaboradores, mediante teléfono, radio y/o correo electrónico se realizan notificaciones pertinentes.

Asimismo, existe una estrategia organizacional orientada hacia el capital humano que ha auxiliado en la operación exitosa de la empresa; en ese sentido, esta ha sido una de las acciones que les ha permitido competir y permanecer en la industria. Los colaboradores juegan un papel esencial en la prestación del servicio de alojamiento debido a que son ellos quienes tienen la difícil tarea de la atención al cliente, por lo que, de acuerdo con Najul [2011], los empleados deben tener una autoestima alta, motivación al logro, asumir riesgos y enfrentar las dificultades. En la actualidad su planta laboral asciende de los 145 empleados distribuidos en 7 gerencias, 8 jefaturas de departamentos y 129 empleados operativos; se trabaja para que el personal cuente con las herramientas necesarias. Específicamente, en las áreas de recepción, restaurantes y cuartos los empleados portan uniforme con colores que distinguen a la empresa, blanco y beige, y se encuentran entrenados para utilizar frases especiales que hagan sentir especial al cliente de negocios.

Por último, destaca la importancia de la capacitación estratégica para la empresa analizada, debido a que es un elemento que las empresas exitosas en México han implementado con el propósito de cumplir con los requerimientos que permitan ejecutar los planes de acción y cumplir sus objetivos, entre los cuales se encuentra atender eficientemente al turista de negocios. En este sentido, la organización cuenta con agendas de capacitación que son enviadas por el corporativo; entre los principales temas que se abordan están la excelencia al servicio al cliente, actualización de manuales, inglés de negocios, motivación y desarrollo personal.

Con base en esto, es posible afirmar que para la organización bajo estudio, la implementación de estrategias organizacionales le han permitido enfrentar las exigencias que plantea el medio; este proceso ha implicado varios compromisos, como adquirir mejor y mayor cantidad de infraestructura, tecnología, recurso humano capacitado, capaz de aceptar y adaptarse a los constantes cambios que se presentan en el entorno, con el firme propósito de atender los requerimientos del turista de negocios y mantenerse en el mercado.

Conclusiones

El turismo de negocios en México tiene un gran potencial de crecimiento gracias a la calidad de su infraestructura de servicios así como la diversidad de oferta turística con la que cuenta; por lo anterior, es importante en virtud de que brinda diversas ventajas al turismo en nuestro país, entre ellas regula la estacionalidad de la demanda turística, mejora la ocupación en temporadas bajas, beneficia y explota la actividad comercial de los destinos, además le ha aporto un mayor crecimiento a las empresas relacionadas a este, entre ellas la hotelería.
Esta investigación se realizó asumiendo que las empresas hoteleras se encuentran ante un entorno sumamente complejo, caracterizado por los avances tecnológicos, turistas cada vez más conocedores y exigentes, el aumento de la competencia global y la falta de certificaciones de calidad que unifiquen el sector, lo cual implica una presión mayor para desarrollar estrategias en el sector turístico que aseguren su permanencia en el mercado.

Ante esta situación la implementación de estrategias organizacionales en esta organización, ha permitido atender de manera eficiente a los clientes de negocios, que cada vez son más exigentes y conocedores, entre las cuales destaca como elemento fundamental la infraestructura, ya que al ser la hotelería una empresa de servicios, este factor es la parte tangible de la organización y es lo que el huésped evalúa desde un primer momento para dar su juicio.

Se visualiza la tecnología como estrategia organizacional, la cual es considerada indispensable para el viajero de negocios, misma que abarca desde la tecnología utilizada para el manejo de la información así como los paquetes de software que son utilizados para eficientar los procesos administrativos de la empresa. El uso de las nuevas tecnologías se ha convertido en un elemento imprescindible para esta organización, por su capacidad para gestionar procesos y ofrecer rapidez y eficiencia en las operaciones internas de la organización, lo que permite a los empleados contar con más tiempo para atender al huésped.

De la misma forma el capital humano forma parte de las estrategias de la empresa, considerado parte del producto, debido a que son los empleados quienes tienen la responsabilidad de prestar el servicio y, definitivamente, depende de ellos que el cliente se vaya contento; cada encuentro que tiene un empleado con un huésped, es considerado una oportunidad para que el turista evalúe la atención que se le brinda, por lo que los colaboradores juegan un papel importante en la hotelería y se debe trabajar en su mejora continua.

Para la empresa estudiada, la capacitación ha sido una estrategia que ha generado reacción positiva en sus empleados debido a que permite que crean en lo que hacen, como lo hacen y para quienes lo hacen; a su vez, los empleados observan la forma en que se desarrolla su plan de carrera dentro de un ambiente laboral agradable. Está comprobado que las empresas comprometidas con el cliente, invierten grandes cantidades en capacitación y entrenamiento, debido a que estas inversiones agregan valor a las capacidades de la organización.

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Family Business Facing Challenges of Contemporary Economy

Introduction

A family enterprise is one of the fundamental forms of business. It is perceived as an individual category of business entities with their own unique features and individualized research area. A family-owned business often becomes the core of the market economy and surprises with its dynamic development. As a source of the economic growth and permanent employment, a family business is firmly settled in the local environment and its main focus is set on local and regional conditions. Although starting a family business originates from numerous reasons, owning a family enterprise shares natural virtue systems, readiness to sacrifice, succession across generations as well as responsibility for descendants, for those who started the enterprise and for the local community.

In this group of market operators, contemporary economic realities evoke the change in thinking and management strategies in order to modify them according to globalization challenges. In the turbulent economy, each enterprise is expected to acquire the ability to adjust their activity, functions and methods of management and work to dramatically changing market conditions due to the processes of the economic transformation and integration as well as new technological and IT challenges.

The subject of this consideration focuses on the functioning of a company and new global challenges that require from this company new strategies to be implemented. Also, the aim of this work is to describe the features of a family business and possibilities to exploit the potential that lies underneath the family character of this business, its reaction to chances and threats, its formation of new solutions for further effective work and development.
Description of family business

Historically, a family business is the oldest form of business dating back approximately three thousand years BC [Gasoon et al. 1988, pp. 1–41], being found in each period and each culture all over the world. The issue of a family-owned enterprise, however, became the subject of a growing interest among researchers and popular with practitioners in economic and social management as late as in the mid70s of 20th century.

Nowadays unique virtues associated with a family business are highly estimated. These virtues emphasize the long-term work, the peculiar culture of a privately owned or family controlled organization. Such features bear their impact on a high level of confidence in the offered form and a high quality of the offered goods and service. Furthermore, a high commitment to local communities is strongly signified. In Europe, family enterprises cover over 60 per cent of all business operators, both large and small, with the employment of about 50 per cent of the workforce [European Commission 2009]. The growing emphasis is placed on actions to encourage better conditions for entrepreneurs and family businessmen [Statement 2015].

A family business is usually associated with small and medium size companies while there is a huge number of family large enterprises or groups of such enterprises. Yet not completely clear, the category of family business comprises various sectors and various sizes of companies. All family companies, however, share the business-family connection in many aspects. Among main factors that are specific to family business are: a proprietorship structure of the enterprise within the same family, the participation of family members in the business management and the succession of generations involved in the enterprise [Handler 1989, pp. 257–276]. A high ability to live a long life, efficiency and innovation are also emphasized. The notion of family enterprise is rather ambiguous. It covers various sizes of business, both small and medium, and also those large controlled or owned by the same family. The authors agree that the more the same family is engaged in business they run, the more distinguished the company is. This situation derives from mingling two spheres: business and family.

The family business management becomes a trial for those entrepreneurs who build a company as a form of a secure background for their family in difficult market periods. Particularly, micro and small entrepreneurs are challenged. These market operators, though, manage to operate in global crisis circumstances. Such resistance of a family business should be related to the character of internal relations. The family that owns and controls the company strengthens its organizational coherence, in a turbulent environment particularly. Coherence forces are observed in interrelations of the aims, the fear about the future of the family, the operational synergy and the use of the
hidden knowledge. An increasing impact of destructive forces triggers the mobilization of internal forces to stabilize the business [Kujawińska, Więcek-Janka 2010, pp. 59–69]

In the world, small and medium enterprises influence the economic development as the source of its growth and innovation, as well as create new jobs. The functioning and development of these enterprises support the trade reorganization and, in many cases, counterbalances negative economic trends. The balanced development of small and medium enterprises has a crucial role in the economic growth for four reasons, at least. Creating new postings is the first reason. Six out of ten new jobs are in SME.

Another essential reason is building appropriate conditions for the industrial transformation from traditional forms of production to modern advanced technology [Dibrell, Davis, Craig 2008, pp. 203–218]. Other causes include the competitive upgrading through the innovation development [Low, Chapman 2007, pp. 878–891] and contributing to the global market development [Salvato, Lassini, Wiklund 2007, pp. 282–305].

Small and medium enterprises dominate within family-owned companies. Their strategies are determined by the owner family impact, a proper competitive operational level, an ability to create changes and a strategic adaptation. This means the ability to define the strategy that would be focused on the continuous improvement and aspiration for perfection in the key operational area and key competencies. Simultaneously, the strategy should refer to the early identification of new challenges from the global market and the skillful use of them under new conditions in order to compete and form a long-term perspective for business. This strategy must also include appropriate family-business interrelations.

Family business management in the turbulent environment

The ambiguous notion of globalization appeared at the beginning of the 1990s, thus the turn-of-the-century attributed it its special value. The phenomenon of globalization dates back as far in the past as family business. Yet, not until the present times, globalization transformed into various aspects of a daily life: economic, social, cultural or even religious aspects. Although this term is widely used, it has a whole range of meanings and an unequivocal definition. In literature, globalization is treated holistically, not merely economically. The processes of globalization and the present economy imply the necessity for changes in the way of thinking and the way business is managed [Daszkiewicz 2004, p. 17].

Globalization can also be perceived as a stream of dynamic processes in different areas of life. To be properly understood and participated in, these processes require a strictly worldwide attitude. Globalization processes sha-
re elements like the time-space compression, the border erosion, the elimination of geographic borders in trade, goods, service, investment, technology and information, stretching economic borders, facilitating economic, political and social relations, supporting the integrated global market and the new international work structure [Lierska 2002, p. 18].

Globalization is associated with a research-based economy. This type of economy tends to shift the specific gravity toward services, an increased investment in non-material factors and an increased employment in “science-absorbing” economic sectors, which, in consequence, highlight the importance of higher education and, thus, higher income. At the beginning of the 21st century, the global economy is modified by globalization processes of various dimensions [Gierszewska, Wawrzyniak 2001, p. 17].

Globalization processes mark their impact on the environmental properties of contemporary companies. The changes are observed within the environment, i.e. real and potential space, the density of the environment (the amount and level of aggression in participants), and the number and intensity of environmental processes. The spatial changes cause the growth of a geographical region (internal region), further, the increase in the number of suppliers, customers and resources (virtual space). The change in the density of the environment means new events, processes or challenges, or the accumulation of the already existing ones in isolated markets. These can be related to: the achieved high level of technology, the communication and the political integration. Also, the source of resources loses its importance while their innovative exploitation obtains more value [Pelkmans 2006].

Additionally, globalization processes can cause a crisis, even in most recent parts of the world. This, in return, has its impact on various aspects in the society, economy as a whole and individual enterprises. More and more often crises become a challenge for enterprises and force their re-evaluation and strategical modification. Now the influence of globalization processes imposes on companies a change of their operational concept, a creative and new attitude to the environmental reality. In turbulent times, global economic problems are related to local functional problems.

Now business is developed in immensely different circumstances than in earlier times. The number of developmental factors that influence firms is increasing rapidly whereas the growing number of related factors determines the level of the development and, consequently, the success or failure of a business enterprise [Kaleta 2014, p. 11].

The principal feature of the business modern environment is its permanent state of disorder, which results in its uncertainty and complexity. The growing uncertainty cause a limited ability to predict and analyze past trends. The contemporary environment poses an increasing risk due to gro-
wing limits and pressure from competition. On the other hand, it brings more new unheard of developmental chances. Company management becomes more challenging due to the turbulent environment, i.e. growing pace of changes and complexity. Kotler P. and Casilone J. believe that the new period that came, also described as "the age of turbulence", results is a chaos, risk and uncertainty [Kotler, Casiolone 2009, p. 12].

The more noticeable tendency about modern conditions of company functioning disputes the idea of the change prediction that is possible to predict and control. The progressive diversity can be found in various correlated elements, which has its consequence in the feedback density, ambiguous connections and transient and changeable systems.

Crozier M. indicated the necessity of a new, globalization-related, philosophy in the business management as the old patterns and stereotypes fail in the contemporary enterprise environment. He also propounded a quality priority for human resources as they are the top important factor in a business organization. People form a structural key resource, yet they are not treated as a whole but rather as a culture-based social relations system. A success of each enterprise is determined by the development of human resources, proper relations with customers and the social network of interorganizational connections. When the efficiency of the employed people deteriorates, social relations in the company need reorganization. Consequently, a new model of human interrelations is formed [Crozier 1993, pp. 29–39]. Specific relations within an organization, which derive from its family character, allow both family members and employees to become transformative forces in the transformation process and play crucial roles on the path for the further development.

Through the 21st century the business management is clearly defined by the values such as the organizational culture, the intellectual capital, the ability to learn and adapt, and the ability to form and function within network structures. A family business requires the transformation of relations and value systems as well as the development of a new family-business consensus.

Although contemporary small and medium family enterprises tend to operate within a local area, they need to consider and understand the influence of the complicated nature of globalization, including issues of: economy, society, politics, ecology, technology, culture and religion. The globalization impact on the contemporary business environment resulted in a high level of the uncertainty and complexity and a limited ability to predict the future. The ability to identify these processes and the reasonable approach to them are essential. A competitive advantage is largely determined by the involvement and competence of the management members. An executive owner, endowed with charisma, together with the experience and knowledge of the family members are key elements in the competitive advantage.
Description of the family business strategy

Progressive globalization processes have their natural impact on an individual enterprise. They result in the strategy focused on the company development as a key element of the long-term planning. Each strategy, as an attempt to predict, is considerably risky. However, more risky is deterring from its preparation and implementation. In a number of cases, this impact puts its effect on decision-making processes in the internationalization of a company. The initiation of the internationalization process brings a stream of threats associated with entering unknown operational regions and, on the other hand, potential advantages related to this expansion.

Nonetheless, there are family-related business aims such as: maintaining the business in the family and consequent succession.

In the turbulent period of the progressive globalization, a business strategy is quite risky and comprises operational rules facilitating a high and stable position of the company on the market and with competitive companies, while the appropriate economic condition and the environmental balance of the company are maintained. Such a strategy supports a flexible management and allocation of the business resources. The consequent structure of the company is based on strengthening strengths and eliminating weaknesses as well as a flexible operational policy. Adapting a new strategy is connected with the abandoning of the existing perception of the surroundings and the redefinition of the own evaluation criteria [Malara 2006, pp. 22–23].

The strategy of each business operator must be fixed on achieving a success. Success is not possible without a strong competitive position on the market. A contemporary strategic model should describe a profit generating method, also in a long-term period. Further, this model should define a permanent competitive advantage that allows for a long-term success. Globalization processes and related dynamic changes caused by the turbulent environment contribute to the strategy of a rapid adaptation to the market environment. The type of changes is often perceived as a global transformation process, both national and international, and refers to the economy, society, science and value systems. A business should be resourceful and innovative [Drucker 1995, pp. 63–66].

The experience from the late 21st century revealed the increase of the uncertainty and the risk as a part of the business management. Enterprises often encounter difficulties in the adaptation to new globalization-related conditions. Managers need to define a management model that would limit the negative influence of globalization on the functioning and development of a company and, at the same time, realize fundamental principles of the market economy that are associated with customer-related values and a reasonable use of company resources. This new model of management sho-
uld ensure the existence of a business enterprise in a turbulent period and, in addition, its effective competition and development.

Contemporary challenges also reveal the necessity of searching new organizational forms in business. By the use of a high social capital, family business tends to form groups of companies. Such groups are described by Czakon as expanded enterprises [Czakon 2005, pp. 10–13]. This type of the business cooperation creates a new structure of business relations and facilitates a new strategic approach of the competition and building a competitive advantage to achieve higher operational efficiency.

An increasing competition and a number of agents that influence the family business management require the formation and implementation of a comprehensive strategy. This strategy would allow for the connection of each area of the enterprise and its integration with the environment. The notion of the system thinking and management is described as the fifth discipline [Senge 2003]. The existing strategy needs a reconsideration and restructuring so as the enterprise could adjust its functioning to a turbulent period. Family enterprises need to put more attention to the formation and the use of their knowledge capital, also called the intellectual capital.

There is no existing universal strategy that could be applied in any situation. Family business, in particular, should regard a holistic possibility of the development based on strategic thinking. This kind of thinking comprises a crucial element of the effective organizational development by the implementation of planning and rationality [Borowiecki, p. 155].

Nowadays, as globalization processes mark their growing impact on business, the emerging strategy is more often to be exploited. This kind of the strategic approach is typical to small and medium family enterprises.

Summary

Present enterprises work under new social and economic transformations that can contribute to either a failure or a success. The utmost challenge that contemporary enterprise needs to face is the ability to use specific features of family business to adapt to a new environment and to create a new value of products and service for a customer. The increase of the business uncertainty and risk should build up the operational potential in new, often unpredictable, situations as well as to confront quickly chances and threats, and introduce new solutions.

The social capital of a family business is associated with the value system that is respected through generations by family members and staff members. The considerable reliance allows for the cooperation rules that place any member of the organization in the ready-to-cooperate position. These members are also ready to share the responsibility and mutual trust.
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Humanización como Perspectiva Estratégica de Gestión en Organizaciones Productivas Multiculturales y Complejas

Introducción

El contexto organizacional, logra con su accionar involucrar acertadamente, las relaciones de fraternidad necesarias entre el entorno tanto internos como externos que hacen vida en ella, producto de su razón de ser, lo que para su contexto es una manera acertada de lograr la humanización como un vínculo estratégico, que el capital intelectual utiliza con la finalidad de lograr en el contexto productivo, la humanización requerida, para ser de una u otra forma transferida a cada ente inmerso en el sector empresarial, como eje fundamental de su desarrollo humano el cual redundara en la calidad de sus servicios y/o productos que esta ofertan al mercado, con la eficacia requerida.

El proceso evolutivo aunado a los cambios que han sufrido las organizaciones, ha conllevado a que los individuos se conviertan en el activo más valioso dentro del contexto productivo, bien sea de bienes o servicios, resaltando y respetando sus costumbres, cultura, principios, valores, sin dejar a un lado sus creencias religiosas así como sus afiliaciones políticas, englobando así la cultura social del individuo, hecho que permite dar paso con buen pie al pro-
ceso de humanización dentro del sistema administrativo de cualquier organización, bien sea pública o privada.

Bajo esta óptica, se da inicio a la visualización del individuo amparada bajo una concepción biopsicosocial, reconociendo su condición humana dentro del contexto organizacional, desechar lo costumbre mal concebida de visualizarlo como una máquina más, que conformaba el cumulo de equipo que forman parte de los activos reales de la organización en la cual brindan sus servicios, logrando con esta concepción mantener la inserción del hombre en los procesos gerenciales y administrativos que conllevan al proceso productivo, con conciencia humanística, reconociendo la formación de sus valores, los cuales se han ido fortaleciendo en su trayectoria dentro del contexto social en el cual se incluye la familia, contexto este último en el cual surgen al igual que se desarrollan sus primeras y más fuertes concesiones en lo que se refiere a la honestidad, respeto, responsabilidad, entre otros principios y/o valores, como cualidades que lo caracterizan como un ser netamente humano, con ética personal y profesional, lo que justificara su acción humanitaria dentro de los procesos en los cuales hace vida organizacional, así como personal y familiar, favoreciendo todo esto a la instauración del proceso de humanización que se desea asentar y perpetuar dentro de las organizaciones de cualquier índole.

Respondiendo así con las exigencias del entorno, al lograr mediante la incorporación espontánea de los responsables de propiciar, el que los procesos productivos y/o administrativos, se orienten a que el capital humano e intelectual que poseen, respalden la humanización organizacional, como una estrategia que permitirá el arraigo y profundización que necesitan para generar y desarrollar competencias diferenciadoras que los conlleven a su permanencia en el entorno en el cual hace vida empresarial, perfilándose como organizaciones de ejemplo significativo para dar inicio del proceso de humanización en cualquier organización que desee incursionar en esto.

En aras de visualizar las ventajas que este trae tanto dentro como fuera de las organizaciones que lo practican, al convertir su activo humano, en hombre y mujeres consientes, responsable socialmente, resaltando sobre todo que se manifiestan muy dados a la búsqueda del bien común, actitudes estas, que se perfilan como una característica de gran relevancia que diferencian el accionar administrativo que ejercen el conglomerado empresarial en los contextos universitarios, totalmente humanizados.

Situación de análisis la humanización

Al hablar de humanización necesariamente salta a la vista el término socialización, ya que este último es la fuente principal para el surgimiento de la misma. Por socialización se entiende el proceso, por medio del cual el individuo aprende a desenvolverse en una sociedad determinada. El agente sociali-
zador será la sociedad en su conjunto a la manera holística, o cualquier otro elemento o elementos de la sociedad [Foro de Ciencias Sociales 2002].

En el referido foro se define la humanización como el proceso que explica el hecho de la evolución del hombre, (desde el primate ya desaparecido hasta el nuevo hombre social e integrado). Esta por tanto, explica el proceso de transformación, formación, conformación del mono en el hombre actual. Manifestando que según los antropólogos se puede explicar la humanización a través de la técnica de la socialización. Así las diferentes acciones sociales adquiridas y desarrolladas por el hombre fueron marcando cambios significativos en la forma de socialización.

En este sentido hace preponderante enfatizar que el nuevo hombre social acciona sobre la base de una serie de aspectos, fenómenos o características tales como sus competencias, habilidades y destrezas que focalizan su accionar. Sin embargo el nuevo contexto de humanización orienta al individuo hacia un accionamiento guiado por nuevos aspectos tales como la creencia social, la condición de dogma y fe, así como la convicción propia del saber hacer, fundamentado en la condición lúdica de su contexto social donde la cultura, las condiciones de aprendiza familiar (educación de hogar), generan en él un nivel de aprendizaje significativo que le crea, los aspectos diferencia dores del nuevo individuo en su contexto social.

Así las organizaciones deben visualizar el individuo, como un ser biopsicosocial, sobre la base de un elemento que genera valor agregado no visualizando como un instrumento o recurso sino como un talento que genera, tanto productividad como efectividad, con convicción y condición de aprendizaje académico aunado a la condición lúdica de su ambiente social.

Actualmente las organizaciones se mantienen en una constante incorporación de aspectos o características que les permitan mantenerse a la par de los avances o constantes cambios que se generan en ellas a nivel mundial, a las cuales no pueden estar a espaldas por correr el riesgo de salir del sistema en ocasiones hasta sin darse cuenta, uno de estos aspectos o características se define como capital intelectual el cual está directa y estrechamente relacionado con el talento, mal llamado recurso, humano que conforman la plataforma laboral de las mismas.

Aun cuando el capital intelectual dentro de ellas no es nada nuevo, siempre ha estado presente, hasta el punto que ninguna organización puede funcionar si este tipo de capital, el valor de esta herramienta organizacional es de incalculable valor para el logro de los objetivos, lo que se traduce en bienestar laboral y beneficios económicos para la estructura organizativa como tal, razón por la cual en todo momento los gerentes, jefes, directores o cualquiera sea la denominación que se le asigne a los responsables de dirigir los destinos institucionales u organizacionales, se encuentran en la constante búsqueda de familiarizarse con sus capital intelectual, profesar la empatía, manife-
star su interés en propiciar lazos de amistad, facilitar la superación de su personal, entre otros.

Dando pie con esto el abril las puertas que sustentarán el tan anhelado para muchos proceso de humanización organizacional en contextos productivos e inmerso en organizaciones multiculturales y por ende complejas, por considerar que estos tres (3) aspectos son el factor clave para lograr la humanización tanto dentro como fuera del ámbito laboral, y que el mismo sea transportado a la sociedad en general. En tal sentido, se visualiza la multiculturalidad como el eje efectivo y accionador para la humanización puesto que en su rol de aglomeradora de diversidad de culturas, permite la interacción de las mismas y la sistematización en la operatividad de estas asumiendo un rol de resiliente entre ellas.

Con estos tan transitados términos como lo es el capital intelectual y la humanización se considera necesario hacer referencia a la mezcla de activos, tanto materiales, de planta física, financieros y los más importes el capital intelectual como los agentes, que unidos acertadamente, aun cuando en alguna ocasiones con disparidad o diferencias considerable, permiten el funcionamiento de las empresas u organizaciones.

Resulta relevante el hecho de destacar que así como las organizaciones han experimentado cambios significativos para bien de su colectivo, también es cierto que se encuentra presente un fenómeno que entorpece su normal funcionamiento impidiendo a pasos agigantados el desarrollo deseado por su principales propietarios y anhelado por su capital intelectual, así como en el entorno en cual se desarrolla, en virtud que el crecimiento organizacional favorece a uno directamente pero para otros indirectamente, reflejado en el bienestar y desarrollo de la comunidad que se encuentra a su alrededor.

El fenómeno de la deshumanización que ha experimentado las organizaciones últimamente, se puede considerar como una de las razones principales que contribuyeron a que estas fuesen cada día menos sensibles a las exigencias, deberes, beneficios y condiciones laborales de su capital intelectual, al igual que no tomaban en consideración las situaciones de la sociedad de su entorno, logrando con esto extinguir cualquier señal de humanización que pudiese quedar en el ámbito organizacional, dando paso a que los directivos o dueños de las empresas colocaran todo su interés en el proceso productivo, olvidándose de la condición humana de quienes lo hacen posible, sin percatarse que la tecnología de nada sirve sin la presencia y accionar del talento humano, y solo con la unión de la tecnología y estos se hará posible el proceso productivo.

Humanización una visión de gestión organizacional y multicultural

En el ámbito organizacional, tal como se ha planteado en los párrafos anteriores, y sobre la posición de Nava Ángel [2014], en su Conferencia magistral
de apertura del Congreso Internacional de Investigación e Innovación 2014, en la Universidad de Cortazar. Cortazar – Guanajuato- México, titulada: Humanización en las Organizaciones Productivas Multiculturales, se vislumbra una nueva forma de gerencial, orientando el comportamiento del individuo, como ente preponderante en las organizaciones, hacia una efectividad organizativa de productividad con gestión social, en tal sentido esta última orienta la utilización y aprovechamiento de la biopsicosociabilidad del hombre, para que esta sea trasladada al entorno organizacional, así se conseguirán organizaciones humanizadas en contextos productivos diversos, capaces de enfrentar las amenazas y asumir las oportunidades en espacio y tiempo real, haciendo uso de sus fortalezas, las cuales deben hacer mermar sus debilidades. Todo este planteamiento surge del análisis y accionamiento del individuo, multicultural, inmerso en las mismas. El cual con sus herramientas de acción generan las competencias diferenciadoras de cada organización.

Todo este planteamiento, sugiere el altivo trabajo del supervisor - líder – jefe, el cual debe mantener una actitud positiva con carácter de socialización e integración que permita la sustentabilidad endógena del uso de multiculturas interactúan en los contextos productivos, así enfatizar en una gerencia integrativa, donde el orden de sistematización de la misma se orienta a la integración del entorno laboral que permita una asociación de la organización formal con la informal, es decir que se permita la participación del capital intelectual en todas las acciones organizacionales, generando de esta forma una actitud de sinonimia que gesta un sentido de pertinencia hacia la misma.

Esto implica que el gerente – supervisor – líder – jefe, el cual se podría denominar líderente, se integre a lo social de sus empleados y se preocupe por su contexto biopsicosocial en su interacción tanto a lo endógeno (como empleado) de la organización, como a lo exógeno (en su núcleo familiar), de la misma, asumiendo que cada individuo tiene un contexto bajo estas dos premisas citadas. En este sentido, el líderente, podrá ir integrándose a lo individual de cada sujeto, generando de esta forma las organizaciones humanizadas.

Humanización organizacional

Se hace oportuno mencionar, que según Nava, Colins y Nava [2013], en su extenso arbitrado publicado en los anales del II Encuentro de las Ciencias Humanas y Tecnológicas para la Integración del Cono Sur, que se llevó a cabo en la Universidad Sergio Arboleda. Bogota, titulado: El Poder de la Negociación como Estrategia paraResolver Conflictos en la Humanización Integrar de las Organizaciones, la humanización organizacional, se visualiza como una acción retributiva que redundará en dos acciones a saber: la primera de ellas organización – empleado, en tanto la segunda se orienta a empleado – organización, que refieren:
En relación a la primera acción (organización – empleado), las organizaciones deben orientarse a sus empleados, donde lo importante no sea solamente la retribución de un salario por el trabajo realizado, sino que se oriente también a la corresponsabilidad hacia sus empleados, donde deben sistematizar beneficios, recompensas, asistencia médica, bonificaciones, retribuciones no solamente económica sino también de índole incentivador y/o motivacional en lo personal como; cartas de reconocimiento y/o agradecimiento, entendiendo y aceptando que los individuos tienen sentimientos y creencias que delinean en ellos actitudes, comportamientos y conductas, así como otras acciones que hagan sentir al individuo como participe y socio, con sentido de pertenencia hacia la organización.

La segunda acción (empleado – organización), en la medida que la organización accione en beneficio de sus empleados, con corresponsabilidad y compromiso, asumiéndolo como un ser que les traspola su condición biopsicosocial, así como sus valores y principios, en esa medida el individuo gestara una cultura de compromiso hacia la organización, con sentido de pertenencia y pertinencia, sintiendo un compromiso que generará en él una correspondabilidad que desarrollará una actividad productiva en beneficio de la organización.

Metodología utilizada:

Hernández, Fernández y Batista [2010, p. 133], plantean que “los estudios descriptivos pretenden, especificar las propiedades importantes de personas, grupos, comunidades o cualquier otro fenómeno que sea sometido a análisis”. De la misma forma y según lo planteado por los mismos autores, es considerada no experimental de campo, ya que las variables de estudio no fueron manipuladas presentándose tal y como se muestran en el contexto de análisis, siendo así un estudio de campo, puesto que según lo planteado por Hernández, Fernández y Batista [2010], los estudios de campo se caracterizan por que la información o data es recolectada de la realidad misma donde se suceden los hechos, enmarcándose dicha investigación como descriptiva, con un diseño transaccional, no experimental de campo.

Población de análisis

Para el estudio se tomaron como sujetos de análisis 155 gerentes propietarios de PYMES de Servicios a la Industria petrolera de la Sub Región Costa Oriental del lago de Maracaibo, estado Zulia, Venezuela. La cual por ser finita y significativa no se realizo calculo de muestra, y se trabajo bajo un esquema tipo censo.
Consideraciones finales

En este contexto y al asumir una nueva posición o estilo de gerencia, se hace énfasis en determinar los elementos que lo conformaran, en tal sentido a efectos de dilucidar sobre los resultados de esta investigación, se presentan las reflexiones finales en función a los dos gráficos que se muestran a continuación, los cuales presentan un diseño en forma de articular los elementos que, a juicio de los autores, deben ser considerados como preponderantes para sistematizar y gestionar la humanización en organizaciones con características de multiculturalidad, los cuales deben hacer sinonimia de acción e interacción, conformando así un reflejo de múltiples elementos intrínsecos, tanto de las formalidad de las organizaciones como de los individuos que la conforman.

En tal sentido, sobre las exigencias de lo que es el contexto social que busca un hombre más humanitario con convicción social en ellas se hace énfasis en la formación de un individuo capaz de poder asumir los nuevos conceptos sociales que fundamentan los niveles de efectividad y productividad, con capacidad de difundirlos. Haciéndose necesario, por tanto, ser sujetos transformadores de una realidad de la sociedad, lo cual se da, en forma plena, únicamente en el hombre que asume la convicción humanista, tomando en cuenta que tanto la actitud y aptitud son más sociable en algunos hombres que en otros.

La nueva realidad reinante del proceso de humanización, conllevado por el de socialización, se ha visto favorecido, producto de las costumbres sociales que se han desarrollado, convirtiéndose en el éxito evolutivo de cooperación y concientización que han generado los grupos de trabajo.

Por último, del estudio se pudo concluir, que la complejidad en las organizaciones depende de la presencia de individuos con actitudes y comportamientos diversos y en oportunidades cerrados, en la mayoría de los casos no adaptables a los variados niveles culturales presentes en las mismas, los cuales se gestan sobre la condición bio psicosocial de cada sujeto y la forma de interacción e integración social dentro el contexto organizacional. Dicha condición está asociada a un aprendizaje de tipo social – familiar (formación de valores, principios, ética, entre otros), que delinea las actuaciones y comportamientos de los sujetos y que son traslados a las organizaciones cuando estos se insertan en ellas.

Resultados estos que permitieron u orientaron generar una propuesta de Ciclo Social y Humanizado de las Organizaciones que redund en la sistematización, en el manejo organizacional, de la complejidad sobre la base de la multiculturalidad en organizaciones productivas.

Los resultados también permiten hacer una inferencia de las tendencias que dirigen la referencia organizacional, en contextos productivos, multicul-
turales y complejos, enfatizando la acción humana de cada individuo y por ende de cada proceso.

Gráfico 1: Ciclo Social y Humanizado de las Organizaciones.

Gráfico 2: Referencia organizacional
Referencias Bibliográficas


Corporate Values as a Framework of Shaping of the Organisational Culture in Capital (Corporate) Groups – Results of the Empirical Research

Introduction

Organisational culture, considered in the perspective of different approach to its definition and interpretation [Deal, Kennedy 1982; Schein 1986; Goffee, Jones 1996; Hofstede 2000; Sułkowski 2002], has to be regarded as a scene for the dissolution of various social and organisational problems immanently accompanying HR management processes in corporate groups operating in both national and international scale. Organisational culture is emerging from differentiated views, ideologies and values, convictions, expectations and norms of conduct; as a set of standards and values to be observed by the organisation’s employees. As a practical and theoretical phenomenon it defines and represents such aspects as the hierarchy of values, remuneration, career development, loyalty and power, participation, internal communication and innovation. In this sense, it has the qualities of a system, with all the above elements operating in correlation and affecting one another [Łobodziński 2015, pp. 25–26]. “It defines the approaches to the formulation of personnel policies and strategies, as well as the range and the use of personnel management instruments, both on the level of the whole group and that of individual subsidiaries. It formulates the grounds for decision-making processes and choices made with respect to employee selection, evaluation, motivation and development, by facilitating or hampering the realisation of those processes” [Zając 2012, p. 141]. Results of literature studies indicate the fact that some authors strongly believe that cultural problems in organisations can only be avoided if both the superiors and subordinates are parts of the same culture. The principle of observing local customs by foreign
employees working in local branches (i.e. those outside the cultural setting of the corporate centre), strongly emphasised in international business, applies directly to expats delegated by the parent company to control and protect its interests in foreign subsidiaries [Gesteland 2000, p. 16].

Organisational values have to be recognized as a key factor influencing human resource management processes in various organisations, including the corporate groups. They are treated by some authors as part of the organisational culture (cultural values). Values as elements of organisational culture applying directly to objects, conditions and situations considered of special value for people who try to realise them through their affiliation with the organisation [Walczak 2012]. The value system allows to define patterns of behaviour for employees by formulating objectives to be pursued or avoided, and by suggesting the ways to attain these goals [Sikorski 2002, p. 4]. Thus, the adopted values, as patterns of behaviour, support and facilitate human resource management processes in organisations. Organizational values referred to corporate groups will be named as a corporate values in the text below.

The aim of this paper is to analyse and evaluate corporate values as a framework of shaping organizational culture in corporate groups on the base of results of literature study illustrated by the case study analysis.

1. Corporate values as a core element of organizational culture in corporate groups

Organisational values are formulated on the basis of cultural determinants. The most important among them are those referred to as core values (this applies both to individual companies and to larger economic groups). Those are perceived by some authors as autonomous constructs, largely independent of the organisational culture, or even overriding and superior in relation to organisational culture as such [Zając 2009; Hopej, Kamiński 2005]. This approach is in opposition to the well-established and universally adopted so called clinical model of organisational culture, postulated by E.H. Schein. In this model, values and norms, as elements of organisational culture that are in part visible and comprehensible for employees, are considered the core of that culture [Schein 1986, p. 14]. Other authors equate organisational values with organisational culture, regarding them as behavioural patterns or idealised standards used as basis for the formulation of detailed social, environmental and cultural norms [Lewandowska 2013, p. 3]; as “a belief in what is best for the organisation and what should be pursued” [Armstrong 2000, p. 152]; as products of feelings, convictions and expectations of employees with respect to what is valuable, desirable and attainable [Krzyżanowski 1999, p. 205]; as desired end states serving as guidelines for human effort [Smelser 1963]. A. Łobodziński defines them as sets of formal
and informal patterns of conduct, as the most ingrained standards maintained and accepted by members of the organisation, and which can be further employed for the formulation of new values [Łobodziński 2015, pp. 38–39].

Values, relating to the organisational culture, are universally considered as success factors for modern economic entities and groups. The core values are powerful concepts serving to express and support the organisation’s identity and its development [Stachowicz-Stanusz 2008, p. 71; Barabasz, 2008, p. 143]; they play an integrative function, serving as a binding force for the organisation (similarly to organisational culture); they play a perceptive role (facilitating a shared understanding of goals and tasks between managers and employees), they offer support for the motivational function (by facilitating the realisation of a psychological contract held between the parties involved, i.e. employer and employees) [Robbins, Judge 2007, pp. 306–307].

At this point, it may also be useful to emphasise the fact that the values expressed in the organisational culture may in some cases contravene the actual values held by managers and employees, forming two separate sets of organisational values, creating a dissonance in the sphere of organisational values.

2. Corporate values as a basis for international human resources management

For companies operating as a big companies in the global scale, human resource management takes on an international character. There are numerous approaches to defining, interpreting and clarifying this concept. Synthetic definitions of international HR management can be found in R. Boxal, T. Listwan, and A. Pocztowski. The former postulates to interpret it as “human resource management that applies to employee management in economic entities operating on international scale” [Beardwell, Holden 2001, p. 634]. T. Listwan introduced the term of international personnel management, representing a set of personnel-related activities designed to facilitate the realisation of objectives of international companies and to satisfy the needs of their employees [Listwan 1995]. A. Pocztowski defines international human resource management as a set of qualified activities of regulative character, designed to improve the effective acquisition and use of human capital in companies operating on international markets [Pocztowski 2002, p. 20]. Thus defined, the international HR management may also apply to corporate groups (company groups), provided that they operate on international or global scale. Organisations of this type are characterised by [Pocztowski 2002, pp. 20–25]:

– increased scope of personnel-related activities and tasks, including such objectives as: the preparation of managers and specialists delegated to work in subsidiaries located abroad (the so-called expatriates or expats),
particularly in countries of strongly divergent cultural conditions; building of personal and institutional ties and links in international environment; preparation of special remuneration packages for expats; coordinating the cross-border transfer of employees; investigating the details of legal and fiscal systems in home locations of subsidiary companies [Pauwse, Deve 1995, p. 78];

– increased complexity of processes and tasks, resulting from the heterogeneity of employees representing various nationalities and cultural affiliations;

– stronger interference of employers in matters outside the sphere of work-related life of their employees; this is particularly evident in the case of expats who often migrate abroad with their families;

– strong cultural diversity of the work environment and greater significance of cultural context in the course of settling the most important problems faced in all phases of the human resource management process. This is a great challenge for HR managers, since the cultural diversity should be taken into account in such aspects as the realisation of the company mission, value systems, formulation of personnel policy principles and strategic objectives for the HR management processes, designing of corporate procedures that promote the multicultural approach, preparation of training programs and procedures, improvement of internal communication, and supporting the expats to help them deal with the pressure of culture shock.

It must be noted that organisational cultures of entities affiliated with international corporate groups (operating in the capacity of large global corporations) are often widely diverse. Human resource management in company groups of this type is burdened with a multitude of problems characteristic for the multicultural environment. Some authors even postulate the introduction of the “intercultural management” concept, to emphasise the necessity of adopting a diverse set of instruments, as opposed to the ones used in a mono-cultural environment, and to promote the use of other mechanisms for shaping the organisational culture [Spillan 1997, pp. 49–51].

3. Corporate values in the light of empirical studies

Researching program realized by the team of explorers from Economic University in Wrocław in 2014 led by the author of this paper allowed to gather empirical data including information about corporate values shared by employees in corporate group IMPEL Stock company. Researching tool used by members of the team mentioned above was the categorized questionnaire. The core business of IMPEL is service activity in the field of cleaning and security. Total number of employees is around 22 thousands. This corpo-
rate group is consisted by more than fifty subsidiaries located within two big business units: Business Unit 1 IMPEL Cleaning and Business Unit 2 Security and three units supporting them. In the organizational structure of the supporting line is located Department of Training and Development. The Chief of that Department is responsible for creating and realizing personnel strategy for the whole corporate group IMPEL, mainly the programs of development of top level managers. He is also responsible for monitoring how corporate values are respected by managerial stuff and employees. Results of these empirical research led us to light cultural values and the system for monitoring the employee dispositions (employee satisfaction).

Corporate group IMPEL operates on a national scale and employs no expats. Consequently, the problem of multicultural diversity on an international (supranational) level does not seem to apply in this case. When asked about corporate fundaments for the shaping of interpersonal relations, respondents from Group I emphasised best managerial practices shared between all members of the group and continuously propagated in both social and organisational dimension as well as the unified corporate standards of behaviour which serve as internal benchmarks for the evaluation of managers and the staff.

One of the most important ‘instruments’ of strategic human resource management in This Corporate Group is the set of core organisational culture values, referred to as key success values. These include: stability, development partnership and positive image.

Stability, in the practice of the group’s operation, is perceived as the strive for maintaining continuity of organisation, operation, market presence, etc. These goals are achieved through optimisation of cost and task/objective orientation. For that, the group employs a professional controlling system based on the idea of direct analytical support for each of the key managers. Analysts assigned to work with individual decision-makers are tasked with the duty to provide them with extensive information support through monitoring of the environment and identification of changes or challenges faced in the course of operation. This solution is designed to help the managerial cadres make prompt and informed decisions or even (to quote the expression used in the internal early-warning system) to build a strong basis for anticipating future changes.

For Group IMPEL, the development postulate is approached in two dimensions, i.e. in terms of internal vs. external development. The latter involves expansion to new markets, mergers and acquisitions, extension and improvement of existing product packages, development of business contacts, formation of new companies. ‘Internal’ development, on the other hand, is equated to personal and professional development of managers and the staff.
Key significance in the latter context is placed on projects directly oriented on the improvement of key managerial cadres, particularly those emphasising flexibility and self-reliance. For this purpose, the group employs a number of instruments, such as intranet databases of products, procedures, markets and best managerial practices, discussion forums organised around specific products and technologies, and internal conferences held annually on the initiative of IMPEL owners. The conferences are meant to serve as a ‘reminder’ for the top management to help them perceive the ‘direction’ the group intends to follow, to help them cope with intended or anticipated changes, and so on. Coaching sessions are also provided, under the guidance of external specialists or experienced top managers from the group’s central company.

Partnership, much like the development postulate discussed above, is also perceived in two dimensions. In the case of Corporate Group IMPEL, it involves ‘external partnership’ based on principles established in the corporate Code of Ethics – a document designed to form a steady base for durable and sound relations with external partners – and ‘internal partnership’ associated with interpersonal relations between superiors and subordinates (“a radar of social commitment”). Partnership in Group IMPEL, as a cultural value, emphasises the transition from classical transactional leadership towards transformative leadership as well as building a positive organisational climate and a friendly workplace.

The management of the group under study is decidedly more focused on building a positive company image, relative to other values. This attitude is based on the assumption that this particular cultural value is the least propagated and understated in the minds of both managerial and rank-and-file personnel. For this purpose, a number of initiatives have been introduced, such as building a professional and positive employer image through blogging activities delegated as part of the duties to the Director of Training and Development, implementing professional standards of employee dismissal procedures, and propagating desirable standards of internal communication.

The key significance placed on the above values, their wide propagation and development – these attitudes are considered by Group IMPEL owners as strategic factors of success. Dissemination of these values is considered by the Chairman as one of the most important priorities of the managerial mission. Consequently, the group’s Chairman of the Board is directly involved in the tasks of inspiring, motivating and mobilising top managers to pursue these values in their day-to-day activities. He also stimulates more systemic and comprehensive approaches concentrated on providing organisational instruments for the evaluation and monitoring of managers by rank-and-file employees.
Good atmosphere, peer support and open attitude have been identified in empirical studies as the most prized values in terms of building proper relations between managers and the staff. They are also, in the responder’s opinion, a prerequisite for maintaining desirable level of employee integration and retaining the most valuable personnel.

In the group under study, the most desirable employee attitudes and behaviours formed as a result of shared values included: involvement, loyalty, honesty, responsibility, reliability, mutuality (but with strong emphasis on self-reliance), help, support and initiative.

Business and supporting units of IMPEL have been involved in regular monitoring of employee satisfaction for 6 years now. The questionnaire system used for the monitoring purposes is based on F. Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory. The survey is distributed online to all the employees of the group. Over the last five years, the response rate to questions used in employee evaluation and opinion polls in Company I1 fluctuated around 70%. This year, it dropped to the level of 43%. In the course of empirical studies, the authors were unable to identify the reasons for the above decrease in response rate. Results of internal surveys are processed by the group’s HR department and published in the form of a database of employee achievements, both online and in the group’s bulletin. The database is formally referred to as ‘the Lodestar’ and used as basis for the identification of employee behaviours preferred by the group. These are assigned to four core values, already presented in the previous section of this part of the paper. The resulting patterns of behaviour, formulated on the fundament of cultural values, serve as behavioural guidance for managers and the staff and the system is perceived as a motivational instrument. It must be noted that persons to receive the highest rankings in the internal employee opinion polls in Group IMPEL are formally awarded for their achievements during the annual staff meetings, which has an additional value for both promotion and motivation.

Conclusions

There are many similarities and differences between organisational vs. national cultures. Both depreciation and elevation of the significance of cultural differences may result in a cultural shock, tension and the sense of confusion. Cultural differences are a core factor deciding on the shape of inter-organisational and interpersonal relations. They may contribute to the increase of the organisation’s competitive advantage and stimulate its growth and development [Bertagnoli 2001]. When taken into consideration in decision-making and conflict resolution, those differences have the potential to improve work quality and work results [Gilbert, Ivancevich 2000]. Experts involved in the research and exploration of organisational cultures have long been...
divided in their dispute over the apparent dominance of cultural convergence vs. divergence. Some state their preference for cultural unification [Fukuyama 1997], others tend to emphasise cultural divergence and diversity, reinforced by current globalisation trends [Harris, Morgan 1996; Hofstede 2000; Huntington 2003]. Regardless of the adopted approach to the perception of organisational cultures, the ability to work in an effective manner in a diversified environment of modern organisational culture remains a high priority and is sought after by employers, particularly with respect to managers and specialists employed in international corporate groups. As aptly observed by A.K. Koźmiński, “the intercultural management is focused on behaviours, attitudes and interactions held by management and the staff representing various national and cultural backgrounds, based on the assumption that culture is a strong determinant of the practical realisation of organisational roles” [Koźmiński 1999, p. 205]. Results of the research described in this article indicate the key role of corporate values in building up the framework for human resources management in corporate groups. They force us to articulate two conclusions. Firstly, they have to be regarded as an important “cultural tool” of shaping behaviour and attitudes of employees. And secondly they become also the instrument in hands of superiors in motivating their subordinates.

Bibliography

Corporate Values as a Framework of Shaping...


Challenges during Market Entrance in a Foreign Country

Use of the Consulting Services while Entering the Market – Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SME) in Comparison with Large Concerns

Introduction

The aim of this publication is to identify how small and medium-sized enterprises from the consumer goods industry can take advantage of the consulting services while entering into the foreign market in comparison with the large concerns. For this purposes in the publication will be presented research made by the author. This research is dedicated to the factors responsible for a successful entrance into a foreign market.

The next chapter describes the initial situation. Then the presumptions will be presented according to the problematic issues and goals. In fourth chapter theoretical considerations are described. The following chapter (5th chapter) focuses on the concrete results. In the end the last chapter summarizes results of the conducted research.

Initial situation

In connection with the market entrance of the companies in the literature the terms are often used like globalisation or internationalisation [Mäder, Hirsch 2009, pp. 107–137; Simon, Welling, Freiling 2006, pp. 154–178; Jenner 1994]. In the economy, term globalisation means the global exchange of the goods.

On the one hand the term internationalisation describes a process of the increasing integration between the companies in foreign markets, whereas
on the other hand it means an opinion in form of the description of situation that is distribution of added value activities of one company in the various foreign markets during the defined time [Thumann 2009, pp. 3–23].

The speed of the internationalisation has recently increased [Gutberlet, Knobloch, 2002, pp. 315–332]. Together with the large companies, also the small and medium-sized enterprises are entering into the foreign markets. The challenge of small and medium-sized enterprises is based in many cases on significant smaller material resources in comparison with the large companies as well as access with their products to trade and consumers in a new market [Wirtz, Bernd 2008, p. 45; Karakaya, Stahl 1989, pp. 80–91].

There are many definitions of small and medium-sized enterprises, however they are classified according to their turnover and number of employees [Braehmer 2005, p. 2.].

According to the “Institut für Mittelstandsforschung” (IfM) companies are classified into small and medium-sized enterprises when they employ less than 500 employees and generate smaller annual turnover than 50 million Euro [Institut für Mittelstandsforschung Bonn 2002].

However, classification of the European Union includes to SMEs companies which have less than 250 employees and generate the maximal annual turnover of 50 million Euro or with the maximal balance sheet total of 49 million Euro. There is also further restriction: any other company shall possess 25% or more shares in the company [European Union 2005].

Issues and goals

By making the strategic decisions, like in case of entering into a foreign market, the SMEs seldom take advantages of the consulting services. The reasons of such situation is often small material resources [Mittelstand-Digital 2013: Sind KMU beratungsresistent?]

However, even if there is an access to financial assets the company has to decide, if or which external consulting firm shall be hired. Additionally, there are issues concerning contract drafting and way of proceeding consulting services [Bamberger, Wrona 2012, pp. 1–44].

On the basis of these challenges it can be assumed that also SMEs in the consumer goods industry hardly ever draw on the consulting while entering the foreign market. Because of that the goal of this publication is to show which trends are presented by the companies in the consumer good industry regarding consulting while entering a new market.

For this purpose a research conducted by the author is used – among decision-makers in 100 companies in the consumer good industry.
Theoretical assumptions

The theories according to the internationalisation can be explained with the decision theories, as well as behavioural decision theories [Kornmeier 2007, pp. 92–93]. Together with the classification of the decision models and basic model of the decision theory they are presented in the following part of the article.

General decision theory

With the help of the decision theories descriptive or prescriptive/normative statements can be presented [Laux 2007, p. 1; Berens, Delfmann, Schmitting 2004, p. 49]. Accordingly, it can be distinguished between descriptive decision theory and normative decision theory.

The descriptive decision theory tries to describe the choice behaviour of people with the help of the empirical methods and knowledge [Laux 2007, p. 1]; the normative decision theory supports the rational decision-finding. This theory search for right goals of the decision maker according to the rules, which will lead to proper decision with search for action alternatives considering the consequences of a decision [Zelewski 2008, Corsten, Reiß, pp. 2–98; Goodall 2002, p. 8].

The basis of the decision theories form decision models to support decision finding [Büter, 2010, p. 23]. However, on the other hand theories are used to build decision models, so they are mutually dependent and only with the one definition the other can be expressed. But decision models are often systematized differently.

Classification of the decision models

Laux divides models into general decision models and definite decision models. The general decision model concerns general problems. Such model can be converted from a general problem to definite decision problem [Laux 2007, p. 17]. Kirsch qualifies the decisions models according to open and closed methods. The closed system does not consider the background where the decision problem lies. It doesn't pay attention to the interaction between system and the environment. However, the open models consider the influence of these factors [Kirsch 1988, p. 1]. Additionally, Laux distinguish the models also on the basis of the information sources, whether the information that forms the basis of a model is safe, that is whether the information is complete, or is not safe, than incomplete [Laux 2007, p. 53]. When the insecurity occurs in the model, it is a stochastic model. In case when the insecurity of data is omitted or information is complete, such model is described as a deterministic model [Ortlieb, Dresky, Gasser, Günzel 2009, p. 12; Scholl 2001, p. 19]. What's more, the decision models can be also subdivided into...
groups depending whether they are in a position to consider temporal development and temporal dependence of a system that is going to be formed. In case they are not able to do so, than we talk about static or single-stage decision models, however if they consider the above mentioned factor they are described as a dynamic or multi-stage models [Laux 2007, p. 378f.; Brühl 2009, p. 214; Scholl 2001, p. 20; Heinen 1992, p. 160].

Additionally, we can distinguish complete-structured and ill-structured decision problems. When a decision problem is compete-structured, then it has clear determined goals, concrete number of alternatives for action and the knowledge about the consequences while choosing one option, as well as a solution procedures, which helps to create an unambiguous preference order of the alternatives for action. When one from the above mentioned criteria is not fulfilled, than we have to deal with ill-structured decision problem. The analytical solution is also impossible [Dichtl 2001, p. 10f.; Jung 2006, p. 43].

Consulting for companies

The strategic problems of companies are in many cases caused by the bad structured problems. The companies do not have sufficient information about specific situation. And when it comes to decision-making processes, they often feel insecure [Bamberger, Wrona 2012, pp. 1–44].

In order to make a decision – without insecurity – in accordance to market entrance, the companies can take advantage from the consulting services. So with help of the consulting company the knowledge base as a basis for action not only can improve the decision-making process, but also has an influence on the ability of the management to find efficient decision [Bamberger, Wrona 2012, pp. 1–44]. The new market entrances can gain experiences from the prior entrances. In such way the companies learn from the past. In this moment the Uppsala school talks about the higher development [Kutschker, Schmid 2008, p. 467]. The experiences of the companies can be used as a knowledge base for the new market entrances [Al-Laham 2008, in: Corsten, Reiß, pp. 529–589; Gelbrich 2009 in: Keuper, Schunk, pp. 271–284].

Because of that fact, this article considers the usage of the internal consulting. The term internal consulting can mean the support from other departments and/or other company’ groups. However, internal consulting is more popular among large companies. In small companies, like SMEs such form of consulting is rather rare [Greschuchna, Larissa 2006, p. 19].

In case when a company does not have any experience it can hire external know-how consulting companies and/or specialist with experience within market entrances. Because of budget limitations for external consulting, companies in many cases chose internal consulting [Mohe 2005 in: Boos, Heitger, pp. 303–324].
On the basis of the initial information this publication investigates two possible consulting methods while entering the market in foreign country: on the one hand the possibility of external consulting, on the other hand the possibility of internal consulting (by some other departments).

Definite results

The majority of the companies from the research can be classified as small and medium-sized companies (SMEs) (according to definition of SMEs IfM, see table 1). Companies in the research are divided into SMEs and large companies.

Table 1. Classification of the companies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of the company</th>
<th>Number (N=94)</th>
<th>Number of employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SME</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>8,025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large company</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20,180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own study.

Almost two-thirds of the questioned subjects do not include any additional consulting in planning the market entrance. These are often small companies (see table 2).

One third of the questioned subjects can imagine that in case of the next market entrance they will use the external knowledge. The majority (two thirds) – often small companies – were not able to imagine such solution.

More than one third has used the external consulting or internal consulting from other department before the market entrance. Almost two thirds of the producers, who have used internal consulting, are not able to imagine that in case of next market entrance they will use the services of the external consultant.

Because these are often large companies, they can use internal consulting while making some other market entrances. Within such internal consultations an important role in the large companies plays for sure the legal department that has to be consulted in all kinds of decisions.

The majority of the producers who had external consulting will also use this form of the consulting in case of the next market entrance. This group generally includes large companies.

The producers, who have used external consulting and are not able to imagine to use them again, belong to smaller companies. The reason of such situation can be the fact that during consultations for the last market entrance they have already learnt know-how methods.
The next reason can be the investment that has to be made to use the external know-how and cannot be carried by the producer. The research has also shown that the internal consulting is hardly ever used by the small companies. It can be justified by the fact that such companies do not have proper departments.

Large companies use internal or external consulting while entering a new market. Additionally, such companies can imagine that in case of the next market entrance they will also use consulting services.

### Table 2. Consulting while entering the market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you got additional know how (not by your own department) while planning the market entrance?</th>
<th>Can you imagine that in case of the next market entrance you will use external know-how?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, internal</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, external</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AN - average number

Source: own study.

### Summary of results

The results of the research show that more than a half of the producers of consumer goods, who have not been consulted, belong to small companies. Here it can be assumed that the SMEs are “resistant” to consulting services. The reasons of such situation can be varied. However, they are not considered in this research.

It can be assumed that some of the reason can be missing financial resources in SMEs. Additionally, the choice of the proper consultant can be problematic to a company. The professional abilities of the external consulting services are slightly or just a little appreciated. [Mittelstand-Digital 2013].

In many cases the question is: Whether the consulting within the market entrance is necessary for SMEs at all and whether with the help of consultations they can better reach goals determined for market entrance? The next result of the research shows that only one company with 4 employees from altogether 100 investigated companies resigned from the market.

Additionally, also other factors in a company like experience of the employees within market entrance are likely important while reaching the goals of successful market entrance.
Because of that, in next publication will be presented the complete research that will also consider and investigate other factors important while entering a new market.

References


Small and Medium-sized Enterprises in the Modern Economy

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the essence of small and medium-sized enterprises and their importance in the national economy. The chapter is divided into three main merit passages. In the first part of this chapter outlines the quantitative and qualitative criteria for defining enterprise size class. The second part of this chapter discusses various definitions of SMEs used in the European Union, as well as other organisations such as the World Bank, OECD, UNIDO, APEC, but also in such countries as the USA, or Japan. In the third part of the chapter, it discusses the role of small and medium-sized enterprises in the economy, with particular emphasis on their links to the country’s economic growth and employment.

The objective of this chapter is to present and discuss various criteria enabling to define the size of the business unit, distinguishing, micro, small, medium-sized and large enterprises, as well as to outline the importance and role of the SME sector in the modern economy. The chapter is based on the literature review and its critics, what is else, statistical data were used to illustrate the elaborated themes.

1. Quantitative and qualitative criteria of differentiating sizes of firms

In the literature of the subject we can find numerous criteria of classifying firms by their size. It is worth noticing that in individual countries definitions of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) differ considerably, mainly due to the level of the country economic growth. We can assume that

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2 The abbreviation SME will be used jointly with regard to micro, small and medium-sized enterprises, MSMEs.
the division into small, medium-sized and large enterprises is often related to the economic policy of a given state, in which as a rule the SME sector businesses particularly often are subject to protection or support. To distinguish SMEs, we can use both quantitative and qualitative criteria\(^3\).

Qualitative criteria describe the state or the place of a firm in a given industry\(^4\). The following are distinguished as the qualitative features most often encountered in the literature of the subject [Łuczka 2013, p. 126]:

- legal independence of the owners,
- significant role of the owner, in accordance with the personal management principle,
- simple organizational structure of the firm,
- separate financial economy and the type of financing.

The management structure is one of the basic qualitative criteria because, as P. Drucker writes [1995, p. 227], “a firm is as large as the management structure it requires”. The organizational structure of a small business is simple and it is distinguished by one decision-making centre. SMEs are characterized by a special role of the owner, which places him/her at the leading position in the firm structure as an entrepreneur and a manager. SMEs are also distinguished by a specific way of financing to which mainly the equity is used, whereas loans and credits, which quite frequently are accumulated as non-profit family funding, coming mainly from friends, are used to a lesser extent. This feature performs an important role, particularly in the initial stage of establishing a business. In addition to the financial independence, also the legal independence is a characteristic feature of SMEs. Compared to large enterprises, those of the SME sector are usually independent and autonomous. In the literature of the subject, we can come across numerous classifications of qualitative features. Among the qualitative features of SMEs, the presence of innovative elements are also mentioned. A very interesting and comprehensive comparison of qualitative features characteristic for the SME sector and the LE sector was proposed by K. Poznańska and M. Schulte-Zurhausen [1994] (Table 1).

| Table 1. Qualitative features characteristic for small and large enterprises according to A. Poznańska and M. Schulte-Zurhausen |
|---|---|
| criterion: areas of management | Size of an enterprise |
| | small (and medium-sized) | (medium-sized and) large |

\(^3\) The overview of SME definitions applied in scientific research (based on the analysis of 124 articles from international scientific journals) can be found in the study [Senderovitz 2009, pp. 983–997].

\(^4\) Detailed scientific discussions around qualitative aspects of defining SMEs can be found in the study (OECD 2005a).
### Management system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management functions</th>
<th>performed by the owner</th>
<th>performed by managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>role of planning</td>
<td>almost none</td>
<td>critical significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>significance of intuition</td>
<td>vital</td>
<td>insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group decision-making</td>
<td>occurs very rarely</td>
<td>occur frequently</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational structure</th>
<th>simple, most often functional</th>
<th>complex, varied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>flexibility of structure</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communication</td>
<td>direct contact</td>
<td>formalized system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formalization of tasks</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inventory management</td>
<td>based on orders</td>
<td>based on long-term agreements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>division of work</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Sales and supply markets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fulfilment of market needs</th>
<th>individual needs</th>
<th>mass needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Position on sales market</td>
<td>non-uniform</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position on supply market</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>strong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Finance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ownership of capital</th>
<th>owner and his/her family</th>
<th>in cooperation with capital market</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Access to capital market</td>
<td>none or minimal</td>
<td>free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditure on research and development</td>
<td>none or insignificant</td>
<td>significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Personnel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of employees</th>
<th>small</th>
<th>big</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal communication</td>
<td>among all employees</td>
<td>only in working teams</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


On the other hand, among the **quantitative characteristics** of a small and medium-sized enterprise using the absolute size measure, the following are most often considered [Gregor 2001, p. 68; Targalski 2009, p. 26]:
- employment size,
- turnover value (annual sales volume),
- balance sheet total,
- value of fixed assets,
- net annual income,
- time of business activity.

When describing the SME quantitative criteria, some relative size measures are sometimes considered, such as, for example, the firm sales share on
a given market. It is worth emphasizing that quantitative features are not only more objective to define, but first of all they are easier to capture, especially for the needs of the state administration on the one hand, and economic statistics on the other hand.

Undoubtedly, the most frequently adopted criterion of the division into SME and LE sector enterprises is the employment size. However, the main reason for that is pragmatism and not substantive premises. As M. Kokocińska [2012, p. 11] observes, “reaching for and adopting all or other criteria than employment concerns rather spectacular goals […], whereas in economic statistics and isolated records it is basically only the number of workers which is used”. In various areas of the world slightly different definitions of SMEs are adopted. It is worth noticing that the sizes of criteria differ depending on the economic level of a given country, but also on the social conditions. Most often, the number of 250 employees is assumed the threshold between the SME sector and the LE sector, although depending on economies, the cap can be from 10 (e.g. India) to 500 workers (e.g. US). In developing countries, the limit number of workers is considerably lowered. G. Hull emphasizes that in those countries, businesses employing more than 100 workers are usually regarded large [Hull 1986, p. 15 after: Gregor 2001, p. 72].

Various summary statistics and scientific studies isolate SMEs by a few features jointly, quite often they are mixed features, both quantitative and qualitative ones. This principle is adopted, among others, in one of the first qualifications in Europe, developed in 1971 by a group of the British Members of Parliament in so-called Bolton Report [Bolton et al. 1971, p. XIX after: Gregor 2001, p. 70]. The classification prepared by a team working under the leadership of J.E. Bolton includes employment size (industry and construction), turnover volume (trade) or the number of vehicles possessed (transport) in the quantitative criteria, depending on the industry. In addition, three qualitative criteria were applied, regardless of the industry in which a given firm operates, and these are [Piasecki 1998, p. 89]:

- economic features (a small business is distinguished by a relatively small share in the market),
- managerial features (a small business is managed directly by the owner or the co-owner, and not by means of a formalized managerial structure),
- proprietary features (small businesses are independent, it means that they do not constitute a part of a large firm, and while taking managerial decisions the owners are free of external control).
2. Defining small and medium-sized enterprises in the selected countries of the world

2.1. Definition of SMEs in the European Union

The first Community definition of the SME sector was formulated in the European Commission Recommendation No. 96/280/EC of 3 April 1996, yet in practice previous national criteria were also used. As of 1 January 2005, a new European Commission Recommendation No. 2003/361/EC of 6 May 2003 regulating the definition of SMEs became effective. Article 1 of the Annex to this Recommendation introduces the definition of an enterprise which is considered to be any entity, irrespective of an organizational and legal form, including, in particular, self-employed persons and family businesses engaged in craft or other activities, but also partnerships or associations regularly engaged in an economic activity [European Commission 2003, p. 39]. The amendment to the Recommendation enabled, in particular, to increase an extent of the state aid in the EU area, mainly of framework research programmes, but it also introduced the criteria of defining micro-enterprises (compared to the lack of them in the previously applicable Recommendation of 1996). The amendment enabled simpler and fairer access of SME sector enterprises to funds, especially regional programmes, venture capital funds or business angels.

The employment size criteria in the new definition remain unaltered (fewer than 50 for a small enterprise and fewer than 250 for a medium-sized enterprise), but what is new is a significant extension of allowing financial limit values. Thus, the annual average net sales revenue for small enterprises is up to EUR 10 million, and not EUR 7 million, as it was before. Respectively, the total assets were also raised to EUR 10 million, whereas previously they were EUR 5 million. The values for medium-sized enterprises are EUR 50 million instead of EUR 40 million, and EUR 43 million instead of EUR 27 million, respectively. A novelty is also the introduction of financial limit values for micro-enterprises. Micro-enterprises are defined as employing on average fewer than 10 workers annually, assuming that they reached the net revenue on the sales of goods, products and services, as well as financial operations which did not exceed EUR 2 million, or the total assets prepared for the end of a financial year are not higher than EUR 2 million (Table 2 and Table 3).

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5 The Union definition is strictly adhered to by the member states with reference to the state aid, in the remaining issues individual member states can use other definition criteria.
6 More on defining SMEs in the EU by the end of 2004 can be found in the study [Wach 2004a].
Table 2. Definition of a micro-, small and medium-sized enterprises in the EU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of an enterprise</th>
<th>Micro-enterprise</th>
<th>Small enterprise</th>
<th>Medium-sized enterprise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Annual average employment</td>
<td>fewer than 10</td>
<td>fewer than 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A*</td>
<td>Annual net revenue on sales</td>
<td>to EUR 2 million</td>
<td>to EUR 10 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2B*</td>
<td>Annual total assets</td>
<td>to EUR 2 million</td>
<td>to EUR 10 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Links with other enterprises</td>
<td>autonomous enterprises</td>
<td>partner enterprises</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*the fulfilment of one of the two financial criteria is sufficient

Source: own study on the basis of European Commission 2003.

Due to the EU statistical purposes, in the annual reports prepared by the member states for all kinds of analyses, only the criterion of the staff headcount is adopted, and it singles out:
- self-employed (0 workers),
- micro-enterprises (1–9 workers or 0–9 workers),
- small enterprises (10–49 workers),
- medium-sized enterprises (50–249 workers),
- large enterprises (above 250 workers).

The 2003 Commission Recommendation also introduced the notion of AWU (annual work units), and thus, an annual work unit in a given business corresponds to the work performed by one person who works full-time within the enterprise in question during the entire reference year under consideration. The work of persons who have not worked the full year, and the work of those who have worked part-time, regardless of duration, and the work of seasonal workers are counted as fractions of AWU. Therefore, the staff headcount is presented in AWU. Employment does not include maternity or parental leaves or apprentices or students engaged in vocational training with an apprenticeship or vocational training contract. The introduction of AWU considerably facilitated the calculation of the number of workers in firms and eliminated controversies related to the method of calculating them [Mikołajczyk 2007, p. 18].

A kind of novum, when compared to the 1996 Recommendation, is the resignation from articulating a distinct condition of autonomy (till the end of 2004, there was a division into independent and dependent enterprises which could not be included in the SME sector). Instead, the Recommenda-

7 However, detailed Union statistics differentiate between large enterprises, employing from 250 to 499 workers and very large enterprises employing 500 workers and more.
dation introduces three types of enterprises (by their size classes), namely [European Commission 2003, pp. 39–20] (cf. Table 3):

- autonomous enterprise,
- partner enterprise,
- linked enterprise.

**Table 3. Detailed principles of calculating enterprise size in the EU considering links among enterprises**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of link</th>
<th>Size of link</th>
<th>Method of calculating enterprise size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomous enterprise</td>
<td>below 25%</td>
<td>To determine the size of an enterprise, only the data for the studied enterprise are considered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Partner enterprise</strong></td>
<td>from 25 to 50%</td>
<td>To determine the size of an enterprise, the sum of the studied enterprise data and adequate percentage of the data of each partner enterprise are considered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Linked enterprise</strong></td>
<td>above 50%</td>
<td>To determine the size of an enterprise, the sum of the data of the studied enterprise and 100% of data of each linked enterprise are considered.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own study.

**An autonomous enterprise** is considered to be every enterprise which is not classified as a partner or closely linked enterprise [European Commission 2003, pp. 39–20].

**Partner enterprises** are considered to be all enterprises which are not classified as closely linked enterprises and between which there is a relation in which one enterprise, an upstream enterprise, has 25% or more of capital or voting rights in another enterprise (downstream enterprise), independently or jointly with one or a few partner enterprises.

**Linked enterprises** are considered to be those co-existing enterprises which at the fulfilment of the conditions described above are additionally characterized by one of the following relations to one another:

- the enterprise has the majority of stocks (shares) or the majority of voting rights in the meeting of shareholders (partners),
- the enterprise has to right to appoint or remove the majority of the members of management staff, Management Board or Supervisory Board,
- the enterprise has the right to use its dominating influence over another enterprise to persuade it to conclude a contract or to insert an adequate provision or clause in the constitution or the memorandum of association,
- the enterprise which is a member or a shareholder of another enterprise, in its strive for reaching an agreement with other members or shareholders of this enterprise, autonomously controls the majority of shareholders or the majority of voting rights in this enterprise.
However, the legislator provided for a derogation from the dominating influence, when an autonomous enterprise can be considered even the one in which the ceiling of 25% is achieved or even exceeded by a group of distinguished investors, yet, based on the assumption of the lack of link. They are:

- public companies, joint ventures, natural persons or groups of natural persons creating regular ventures of venture capital type, who invest their equity in not publicly listed firms (business angels), based on the assumption that their total investment in a given business is less than EUR 1.25 million,
- universities or non-profit research centres,
- institutional investors, including regional development funds; autonomous local authorities, however, based on the assumption of possessing an annual budget of less than EUR 10 million, and of fewer than 5,000 inhabitants.

Yet, the SME sector does not include firms in which more than 25% capital or voting rights are directly or indirectly controlled by one body, or jointly by a few bodies of public or local administration.

To sum up, it should be emphasized that the introduction of a new definition of a small and medium-sized enterprise enabled to provide state aid to much bigger number of businesses, on the one hand, owing to an increase in the threshold economic values, and on the other hand, owing to the resignation from the strict criterion of autonomy to the benefit of introducing the category of linked enterprises.

2.2. Defining SMEs by international organizations

The World Bank group

The World Bank applies a double system of SME classification - using national classifications or using its own definition. The other solution is applied by the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) and the International Financial Corporation (IFC) of the World Bank. The World Bank definition uses three classification criteria, but to include a given economic entity in the SME sector, it is required to fulfil at least two criteria jointly, and the employment criterion, contrary to the EU, is not strictly required (Table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Small enterprises</th>
<th>Medium-sized enterprises</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annual average employment</td>
<td>fewer than 50 workers</td>
<td>fewer than 300 workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total assets</td>
<td>less than USD 3 million</td>
<td>less than USD 15 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual turnover</td>
<td>less than USD 3 million</td>
<td>less than USD 15 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*the fulfilment of two out of the three criteria is sufficient
Source: own study on the basis of Danabneh, Tukan 2007, pp. 5–6.
The OECD countries

At present, there are two classifications of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), enabling to compare various economies and entities operating in them. Thus, the first classification singles out the following economic units [OECD 2005b, p. 17]:
- employing up to 9 persons,
- employing from 10 to 49 persons,
- employing from 50 to 99 persons,
- employing from 100 to 499 persons,
- employing above 500 persons.

The criteria allow for the highest thresholds applied in the United States of Northern America. In the other classification, the division into the following economic units is made [OECD 2005b, p. 17]:
- micro-enterprises employing up to 9 persons,
- small enterprises employing from 10 to 49 persons,
- medium-sized enterprises employing from 50 to 249 persons,
- large enterprises employing above 250 persons.

Currently, all the summaries are given in both categories, which is supposed to facilitate the standardization of the conducted research.

The APEC countries

The countries creating the Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation (APEC) apply their own national definitions, although for comparative purposes, quite often a common definition is adopted, using the employment size as the only criterion for classification. According to the APEC, businesses belonging to the SME sector are considered to be the ones employing fewer than 100 workers (together with the owners). In the detailed representation, the APEC definition comprises four size classes [Danabneh, Tukan 2007, p. 6]:
- micro-enterprises (0–4 workers),
- small enterprises (5–19 workers),
- medium-sized enterprises (20–99 workers),
- large enterprises (from 100 workers).

The UNIDO definition

The United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) applies an interesting solutions, since as the only international organization uses a qualitative definition of the SME sector (Table 5), sometimes using quantitative criteria only as the auxiliary ones. “Functionally, the UNDO defi-
nes SMEs as enterprises which are too small to achieve the optimum division of work, and thus, the internal specialization in their economic activity” [Hobohm 2001, p. 11].

**Table 5. The qualitative definition of SMEs according to the UNIDO**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>SMEs</th>
<th>Large Enterprise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administration and management</td>
<td>owner-entrepreneur, functions related to personality,</td>
<td>manager-entrepreneur, division of labour by functional criterion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel and division of work</td>
<td>no highly qualified employees with university education, no specialization</td>
<td>prevalence of highly qualified employees with university education, specialization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational communication</td>
<td>highly personified relations</td>
<td>highly formalized communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive position</td>
<td>uncertain and undefined competitive position</td>
<td>strong and defined competitive position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations with customers</td>
<td>unstable, temporary</td>
<td>based on long-term contracts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production</td>
<td>labour-intensive</td>
<td>cost-consuming, economies of scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R+D</td>
<td>intuitive following the market</td>
<td>formalized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing</td>
<td>self-financing of the owner and his/her family</td>
<td>diversified ownership structure, guaranteed access to capital market</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


2.3. Classifications of SMEs in the United States, Japan and Russia

In the United States, small and medium-sized enterprises are not distinguished in the European understanding of these notions. Administrative authorities singled out only so-called small business but in a completely different understanding than in the EU. In the United States, a definition adopted in the Small Business Act of 1953 is in force, according to which a small firm is considered to be an entity which [SBA 2012]:
- constitutes an independent property,
- operates independently,
- and does not dominate on the market on which it operates.

However, the quoted Act says that a precise definition of a small business will differ depending on the industry in which it operates to precisely reflect the differences in conducting business in individual industries. An American organization, U.S. Small Business Administration, publishes a table, updated from time to time, which presents exactly the volumes classifying an enterprise to so-called small Business [SBA 2012]. The system is compliant with
the NAICS (North American Industry Classification System Codes) classification valid in North America. The classification is based on two interchangeable criteria – employment size and revenue value, but for individual sections and subsections only one criterion is given, the one which is valid. As a rule, the adopted criterion of employment size is annual average employment to 500 workers, but in selected sections, the minimum amount is 100 workers, and the maximum is 1,500 workers. Another criterion is the annual average value of earnings whose amount established in the table is usually USD 0.75 million, however, the maximum value is USD 25 million (job centres, where the value is determined to be USD 30 million, are an exception). For section 52, concerning finance and insurance, the total assets are determined instead of the annual average earnings, whose value has been established to USD 150 million (Table 6).

Table 6. Defining the SME sector in U.S.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Limit values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment criterion</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>industry</td>
<td>to 500 workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wholesale trade</td>
<td>to 100 workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Revenue criterion</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agriculture</td>
<td>to USD 0.75 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retail trade</td>
<td>to USD 6 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>civil engineering</td>
<td>to USD 28.5 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>water engineering</td>
<td>to USD 17 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speciality goods trade</td>
<td>to USD 12 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>travel agencies</td>
<td>to USD 3 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>architectural, geodetic and other engineering services</td>
<td>to USD 6 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(including technological evaluations)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chemical cleaning services</td>
<td>to USD 4 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other services (including business services)</td>
<td>to USD 6 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own study on the basis of SBA 2012.

On the other hand, in Japan (just like in U.S.), in contrast to the majority of the European countries, no differentiation between small and medium-sized enterprises has been considered. Only the whole sector of small and medium-sized enterprises has been distinguished from large firms. Two criteria have been applied here, namely employment size and the equity value or the total investments. But the fulfilment of only one of them is equal to recognizing an enterprise as a small business. A Japanese act, *Small and Medium Enterprise Basic Law*, amended in December 1999, differentiates individual measures by industry in which a given enterprise functions (see: Table 7).
Table 7. Defining the SME sector in Japan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry, construction, transport and others **</th>
<th>Wholesale trade</th>
<th>Retail trade</th>
<th>Services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annual average employment</td>
<td>to 300</td>
<td>to 100</td>
<td>to 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity or Value of investment</td>
<td>to JPY 300 million (to EUR 261 thousand)</td>
<td>to JPY 100 million (to EUR 870 thousand)</td>
<td>to JPY 50 million (to EUR 435 thousand)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*fulfilment of one of the two criteria is sufficient

**and other kinds of economic activity, not specified separately


The small and medium-sized enterprise sector is similarly defined in the Russian Federation (Table 8), where two criteria are applied jointly – annual average employment size and turnover value (both criteria for the previous calendar year). Contrary to the EU countries, employment size includes all workers (and not only those having an employment contract). Due to very complicated criteria of registering business entities in Russia, by virtue of the federal act the SME category includes the following types of entities:

- legal persons, including co-operatives and commercial organizations (state and municipal firms excluded),
- natural persons conducting business activity (so-called sole traders),
- entities conducting business activity but not possessing legal personality,
- agricultural farms.

The data obtained in this way are poorly comparable with other countries where the SME sector includes all entities fulfilling given criteria, irrespective of the ownership form (private, state municipal ones). The federal Statistical Office of Russia (Rosstat) assumes that 99.9% of sole traders meet the criteria for the SME sector, however, the statistics within this scope are estimated. When giving the data aggregated for the SME sector, the official Russian statistics consider sole traders but also small (micro included) and medium-sized enterprises with legal persons’ status.

Table 8. Defining SMEs in Russia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of an enterprise</th>
<th>Employment size</th>
<th>Value of turnover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Micro-enterprise</td>
<td>&lt; 15 workers</td>
<td>&lt; RUR 60 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(&lt; EUR 1.5 million)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. The role of small and medium-sized enterprises in economy

Two different views of the economic effectiveness of firms due to their size have formed in the literature of the subject, namely the static approach and the dynamic approach. In accordance with the static view, large enterprises are more effective (than small and medium-sized enterprises) because they focus on their status quo, and not on the strive for increasing their size. On the other hand, in accordance with the dynamic view, small and medium-sized enterprises are more effective (than large enterprises) because they focus on the introduction of necessary changes, which is manifested in their flexibility [SBA 1998]. The static views prevailed from 1950s to 1970s, when large enterprises were regarded the foundation of economy, and small and medium-sized enterprises were perceived as a sign of economic backwardness. Alongside the occurrence of the economic crisis in 1970s, the situation changed. It appeared that large enterprises are slower in action, do not adapt to changes in the environment at an adequate speed, whereas small and medium-sized enterprises turned out to be flexible in action. Thus, since 1980s, the dynamic approach prevails in the assessment of the role small and medium-sized enterprises perform in economy. A detailed analysis on the intricacies of the SME history in the world economy is proposed by P. Dominiak [2005, pp. 38–64]. According to this author, the revival of SMEs falling to the last quarter of 20th century was primarily manifested in [Dominiak 2005, p. 64]:

- an increase in the population of enterprises, particularly of those of the SME sector,
- a drop of enterprises of average sizes,
- the growth of employment in SMEs in the total employment,
- the occurrence of innovative and internationalised SMEs, which previously was the domain of basically only large enterprise sector.

In the mid-1990s, J. Naisbitt [1994, p. 17] formulated the global paradox claiming that “the bigger the world economy, the more powerful its smallest players”\textsuperscript{8}. In his riveting book under the same title, he stressed that the conviction about the domination of the world economy by large international corporations is false, quoting the statistical data of the beginning of the decade that only 7% of the American exports is made by firms employing

\textsuperscript{8} “The bigger the world economy, the more powerful its smallest players”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Small enterprise</th>
<th>16-100 workers</th>
<th>&lt; RUR 400 million (&lt; EUR 10.2 million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Medium-sized enterprise</td>
<td>101-250 workers</td>
<td>&lt; RUR 1,000 million (&lt; EUR 25.5 million)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own study on the basis of FR 2007.
above 500 workers. J. Naisbitt argued that “the bigger and more open the economy of the world becomes, the more small and medium-sized firms will dominate in it”, and economics and the world economy have experienced one of the largest changes in the positions, “passing from ‘economies of scale’ to ‘diseconomies of scale’, from ‘bigger is better’ to ‘bigger is ineffective, more costly and wastefully bureaucratic, inefficient and now disastrous’”. And the paradox which occurred is, moving to the global context: Smaller and more agile players will prevail to a much more broadened extent [Naisbitt 1994, p. 17]. In this context, P. Dominiak [2005, p. 64] represents a different view writing that “The revival of SMEs does not mean the end of the economies of scale. Their significance is still great but not in all sectors and it is not so crucial as it was the case till mid-1970s”. Moreover, N. Daszkiewicz [2004, pp. 23–25] observes that the reorientation and reconfiguration of the world economy, that is the retreat from “gigantomania” to the benefit of SMEs, was also influenced by the neo-liberal economic policy (Reaganomics, Thatcherism) which led to the support for private entrepreneurship, including SMEs, initially in North America and Western Europe, and since the turn of 20th and 21st century, at the whole world-scale [Sułkowski & Marjański 2015a, 2015b]. As it should be believed, integration processes (integration of individual economies within groups) which provided SMEs with easier access to overseas markets, had a key role in establishing the SME position in the world economy. Particularly, “Europe 1992” project and the realization of the homogenous European market contributed to the bloom of the SME internationalisation.

Small and medium-sized enterprises perform an essential role in national economies of individual countries (Table 9). In this respect, there is a consensus both among scientists, publicists, and at the level of political decision makers responsible for shaping the economic policy. For example, in the “European Chart for Small Enterprises” adopted in 2000, small enterprises are regarded to be “the spine of the European economy” [European Council 2012]. Moreover, the Charter regards small firms as the main factor of the growth of innovativeness, employment, as well as the social and local integration in Europe. In its 2007 Communication on the role of small and medium-sized enterprises, right in the first sentences, the European Commission emphasizes a significant role of small and medium-sized enterprises in economy. The SME sector was called the core of the European economy. The Commission highlights that the prosperity of businesses operating in this sector substantially contributes to achieving economic growth and creating a bigger number of better jobs in the Union. Moreover, it stresses the fact that since the time of the renewal of the Lisbon partnership for economic growth and employment, the policy to small and medium-sized enterprises has been its priority element [European Commission 2007, p. 3].
Table 9. The basic characteristics of the SME sector in the selected extra-Union countries of the world in the early 21st century (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Definition of SMEs by the criterion of maximum employment</th>
<th>SME share in the total number of enterprises (in %)</th>
<th>SME share in employment (in %)</th>
<th>SME share in added value (in %)</th>
<th>Number of SMEs per 1,000 inhabitants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>&lt; 200</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>&lt; 250</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>&lt; 100</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>20 (without medium-sized enterprises)</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>&lt; 300</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>&lt; 50</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>&lt; 100</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>195.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>&lt; 250</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>67.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>&lt; 300</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>77-88</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>&lt; 100</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>&lt; 500</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>&lt; 300</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>86.7</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>&lt; 150</td>
<td>99.2</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>&lt; 250</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>ca. 13-17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of South Africa</td>
<td>&lt; 200</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>ca. 52-57</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>&lt; 100</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>&lt; 250</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>&lt; 200</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>&lt; 250</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>&lt; 250</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>&lt; 500</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It is commonly stressed that SMEs primarily have a significant influence on important areas of economy, such as economic growth or employment. However, this is not a catalogue which would exhaust this issue. When discussing the role of small and medium-sized enterprises in the contemporary economy, the following arguments should be mentioned (Fig. 1):

- The SME sector is the major employer in developed economies. Small and medium-sized enterprises offer about two-thirds of all jobs (depending on a given economy and a given branch, this indicator slightly differs).
The SME sector significantly contributes to economic growth measured with the gross domestic product or added value, although it is not a direct or prevailing impact, it is not possible to leave this indicator out.

The SME sector has a considerable share in the process of changing the sectoral structure of a country, particularly the industrial structure (especially in the economic transformation period, but also in economies with structuralized market economy). Micro- and small enterprises also absorb the surpluses of workforce from the restructuring sections of industry by creating the development of new fields of production with the simultaneous effective resource management and finding market niches.

The SME sector “forces” at the grass roots changes in legal regulations concerning the establishment, functioning and development of firms, especially of that sector.

The SME sector substantially supports and stimulates economically rural regions, where large enterprises are reluctant to invest. The activation of economy in rural areas will be effective only when the care will be taken of the development of entrepreneurship among micro- and small enterprises, particularly among the self-employed.

The SME sector is a kind of a “backup” for the LE sector. Large enterprises use the services offered by micro-, small and medium-sized enterprises. The SME sector creates an adequate economic structure needed for the proper functioning of the whole economy, large enterprises included. Cooperation between the SME and LE sectors consists mainly in cooperation, subcontracting (outsourcing).

The SME sector contributes to the growth of public income. Depending on the legal regulations of a given economy, it is about the national budget and/or the local government budget. An increase in the income is the result of earnings from fiscal burdens of entrepreneurs.
Fig. 1. The role of small and medium-sized enterprises in the national economy


To sum up the deliberations on the general role of SMEs in the world economy, it is worth mentioning that during the recession/slowdown (global financial and debt crisis), small and medium-sized enterprises proved their adaptation capabilities and their position in the world economy [Vandenberg 2009; Moscarini, Postel-Vinay 2011], also including the European economy [Wymenga et al. 2011].

3.1. SMEs and economic growth

In the theory of economy, there is no objectively proven evidence for the existence of the dependence between the SME sector and economic growth, which means that it is not possible to unequivocally determine the impact of SMEs on this growth. The states which have considerably varied enterprise population structures can achieve similar macro-economic results. However, it is certain that an economy in which SMEs perform a prevailing role functions differently than an economy based on the activity of large enterprises [Dominiak 2005, p. 65]. However, it should be stressed here that it is possible to find authors confirming such a dependence on the basis of the statistical data. For example, R. Thurik proved that an increase in the number of small enterprises in 12 European countries in the years 1988-1993 had a positive effect on economic growth [Thurik 1996, pp. 145–149]. An analysis of the statistical data concerning the share of the SME sector in GDP generation in the EU countries or U.S. confirms the substantial role of this sector, yet, the fact
that 0.2% of all firms are large entities, and their share is much higher, it tells us to adopt a prudent attitude in such interpretations.

In constructing his own model concerning the relation between the small and medium-sized enterprise sector and economic growth, P. Dominiak proposes a more detailed view of links between them [Dominiak 2005, p. 87]. Firstly, he indicates that the broadly understood environment, comprising the culture of a given society, its ideology, macro-economic, institutional conditionings, policies or legal framework, influences all processes in the economy, shaping attitudes and behaviours of people, including, among others, entrepreneurship. Another element of the model is the culture of entrepreneurship, its impact on the self-employment rate, willingness to cooperate or the attitude to risk. These factors affect the economic structure (e.g. the relations between SMEs and large entities) and have a direct impact on indirect links, through which the activity of people and businesses translates into macro-economic effects. The last element of the model links all the model elements with macro-economic effects. Those are indirect links which enable to assess how SMEs affect economic growth. Taking the direct factors of growth into consideration, the impact of small entities can be assessed from the angle of creating new jobs, the level and the dynamics of work efficiency. However, there are numerous other effects caused by the existence and activity of small enterprises, which are much more seldom mentioned in the literature.

On the other hand, in economics one can, and even must, build dependencies between economic growth and entrepreneurship which determines the formation of small and medium-sized enterprises. Entrepreneurship is a quality which in the combination with some elements, such as proper knowledge or resources, may result in economic growth. According to J. Schumpeter, entrepreneurship and entrepreneur are basically related to the SME sector, as large enterprises usually operate by strictly defined principles, and then there is no space for spontaneous entrepreneurship and innovativeness. As we know, entrepreneurship generates new solutions – innovations evolving economic changes which can, and usually do, lead to economic growth.

In spite of some ambiguities arising from assuming the dependence of GDP from SMEs as an effect or cause relation, it is worth quoting here a few examples proving the strong link of SMEs and economic growth in various countries of the world (Table 9 and 10):

- in the Union countries (EU-27) in 2005 as much as 57.6%, and in 2006 56.9% of added value generated in economy was generated by SMEs (the share of LE was 42.4% and 43.1%, respectively) [Eurostat 2010, p. 122]. In the period of the recent economic slowdown, the indicator was at a simi-
lar level (57.9% in 2008, 58.4% in 2010 and 58.1% in 2011). The share of the SME sector in creating added value in the EU countries has been stable for over a decade, by comparison, in the E-19 countries it was 51.3% in 2001 and 53.0% in 1990 [Dominiak 2005, p. 101].

- “In the European Economic Area (E-19) in the years 1989-2004, it was observed that the real added value (as a component of GDP) produced by SMEs changed with the annual change in this indicator for LEs. A further data analysis, based on the analysis of correlation, shows that neither the SME sector nor the LE sector either outstrips or reacts with delay to the overall rhythm of changes in the whole GDP. Moreover, the fluctuations of both the annual growth of added value and the annual growth of employment seem a little smaller in SMEs than in LEs” [Audretsch et al. 2003, p. 43].

- In Poland, the share of the SME sector in added value generated by all enterprises in total is over a half, thus, it was 51.7% in 2008, 54% in 2010 and 51.5% in 2011.

- In the United States, the share of small and medium-sized enterprises in GDP generation in the years from 1998 to 2004 was practically steady and was equal to about a half, starting from 50.5% in 1998, reaching 49.9% in 2000, and then going up to 50.7% in 2004 [Kobe 2007, p. 1].

Table 10. Gross added value structure by enterprise size classes in the EU countries in the years 2003–2011 (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>LEs</th>
<th>SMEs in total</th>
<th>SMEs in detail</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Micro</td>
<td>Small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*E-19 – EEA-18 countries (including EU-15) and associated Switzerland


9 The data are given after: SBA Fact Sheet on the basis of index cards made for the years 2009, 2010/11 and 2012. Estimated data prepared by Eurostat.

10 See above.
3.2. SMEs and employment

The question of employment is very important from the point of view of social needs. The SME sector performs a substantial role in this area, fulfilling social needs by creating new jobs. In the past, the dependence of employment size from small and medium-sized enterprises revealed a similar trend as the share of the SME sector in enterprises in total. Until mid-1970s, in the period of the marginalization of small and medium-sized firms, employment was falling down and down. In fact, at the beginning of that period, the prevalent number of workers occurred in large firms, but the technical progress caused that machines started to displace workers, and that led to redundancies. On the other hand, from the moment of the SME sector revival in 1980s, unemployment occurred to lesser and lesser extent. It proves a kind of relation between the population of small and medium-sized enterprises and the overall number of jobs. Numerous analyses concerning the influence of the SME sector on creating new jobs proved that the entities have vital influence on the size of employment in national economies. It is commonly believed that the research into the impact of the SME sector on employment was initiated in 1970s by an American economist, D. Brich (1979; 1987), yet many other American and European scientists confirmed his research findings in other economies.

At present, when a lot of countries are trying to combat unemployment, one of the greatest advantages of the SME sector is the fact that they are the biggest source of new jobs and it is believed that they can continue to contribute significantly to creating new jobs [Mikołajczyk, Krawczyk 2006, p. 68]. Undoubtedly, the SME sector had a very significant contribution over the last 20–30 years in creating new jobs, both in the United States and in the EU countries (Table 11), as well as in other economies (Table 10). In highly developed countries, the share of SMEs will probably not increase so much but in less developed countries it should still perform a role of a tool combating unemployment [Dominiak 2005, pp. 177–178].

Table 11. The structure of employment by enterprise size classes in the EU countries in the years 1990–2011 (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>LEs</th>
<th>SMEs in total</th>
<th>SMEs in detail</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Micro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>E-19</td>
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<td>65.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>E-19</td>
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<td>65.9</td>
<td>33.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>65.9</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Region</td>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Salary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>E-19</td>
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<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>33.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>34.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>E-19</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>33.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2005</td>
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<td>2006</td>
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<td>32.6</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2007</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
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<td>2008</td>
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<td>2010</td>
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<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>67.4</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*E-19 – EEA-18 countries (including UE-15) and associated Switzerland


When analyzing the statistical data for numerous economies of the world, a significant role of the SME sector in creating jobs should be definitely proven. In this place, it is worth giving a few examples:

- In the United States, where in 2006 the SME sector constituting 99.9% of all enterprises functioning in that country, provided from 53.0% in 1999 to 50.2% in 2006 of jobs offered in that country, but new jobs created by SMEs in the years 1992 - 2009 constituted 64.1% of all newly-created jobs [USITC 2010, pp. 2–4].

- American young small enterprises (conducting activity for not longer than five years and employing fewer than 20 workers) showed a drop in the indicator of the net employment growth from 26.6% in 2006 to 8.6% in 2009. In the same period, large mature enterprises (conducting activity for longer than five years and employing over 500 workers) indicated the drop in the net employment growth from 2.8% to -3.9% [Fort et al. 2012, p. 2].

- Even during the economic recession, SMEs are the main source of new jobs, which is proven by a lot of empirical research within this scope. The fall of employment during the recent economic slowdown was noticeably bigger in the LE sector than in SMEs in countries like U.S., France, Denmark [Moscarnini, Postel-Vinay 2011, p. 2].
In the EU countries, where in 2008 the SME sector constituted 99.8% of the total enterprises, it provided 67.4% of all offered jobs [European Commission 2010, p. 30]. The increment of new jobs in the SME sector in the years 2002-2010 was higher and was 85% on average, which means that it was two times higher than in the LE sector [De Kok et al. 2011, p. 1].

In Poland, where in 2008 the SME sector constituted 99.8% of total number of enterprises, it provided 68.9% of all offered jobs [European Commission 2010, p. 1].

In Russia in 2011, there were about 3.2 million enterprises included in the SME sector which jointly generated 19 million jobs\(^{11}\), and their total turnover was 800 billion EUR (by comparison, in the same period in Poland there were 1.6 million SMEs which gave employment to 5.9 million people, and their total turnover reached EUR 0.5 billion) [RCSME 2012].

In the majority of developed countries, the SME sector provides jobs for 50 to 80% of the total number of people working in a given country.

Conclusions

Growing role of small and medium-sized enterprises in national economies of most countries in the world became the phenomenon of economic growth at the end of 20th and at the beginning of 21st century. Expansion of SMEs is dated back to the 1970s. Schumpeter laid the foundations for the importance of SMEs. According to his creative destruction concept, capitalism can’t exist without continuous creating of new firms, most of them belonging to the SME sector. Their coming into being is possible on the basis of downfalls of the others. The present-day conditions and strategic paths of SMEs’ development are diverse depending on particular sectors. However, it is sure that the SME sector plays a crucial role in the modern economy, especially as for the economic growth and employment.

References


Bolton J.E. et al. (1971), Raport of Committee of Inquiry on Small Firms, London.

\(^{11}\) 19 million is equal to 13.3% of the whole population in Russia (professionally active and inactive people). It is estimated that SMEs in Russia provide about 50% of all jobs.


New Ideas of Enterprise Management in the Changing Environment
Formación Gerencial Asistida por las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación

Introducción

Este documento presenta un balance de ideas sobre las potencialidades que ofrecen la formación asistida por las TIC para la gerencia empresarial. Para ello se asume, en lo fundamental, la crítica en la medida que ha permitido aprender aquellas experiencias y enfoques que se consideraron significativos. Además, que llevan a comprender y a emprender de manera eficiente los componentes de un modelo de formación empleando las TIC.

Resulta conveniente por la variedad de veces en que se empleará el término TIC, comenzar con su definición. En su sentido social se entiende como TIC las tecnologías de gestión e innovación que se basan en sistemas o productos que son capaces de captar información multidimensional, de almacenarla, de elaborarla, de tomar decisiones, de transmitirlas, de difundirlas y de hacerlas inteligibles, accesibles y aplicables en correspondencia con el fenómeno a transformar [Naranjo & Gonzalez 2010]. El carácter singular de las TIC es la constante innovación que posibilitan y permiten, cada vez más, mayor capacidad de tratamiento de la información. Las TIC abarcan una gran variedad de herramientas de tratamiento de datos, y de símbolos que representan información para sus usuarios, por lo que sus sistemas y productos guardan relación, y afectan el pensamiento, la comunicación y la práctica cotidiana convirtiéndose en un eminentemente proceso cultural.
La idea central que se sustenta a lo largo de este documento es que las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación no deben considerarse solamente instrumentos que puedan ayudar a dar respuesta a determinados problemas, sino como sistemas de información y comunicación que también generan nuevas preguntas. Con esta perspectiva, se analiza a continuación su impacto en la formación, lo cual es útil para el desarrollo de procesos de capacitación en función de la gerencia empresarial. En aras de reflexionar alrededor de los retos de formación gerencial, en este novedoso entorno podríamos preguntarnos: ¿Qué es lo que hace revolucionario el proceso de empleo de las TIC en el desarrollo de respuesta a esta interrogante está asociada con el hecho, de que la lógica binaria combinada con el empleo de la TIC están redefiniendo parte de los patrones que regulan la interacción social, donde para múltiples propósitos, el tiempo y el espacio han dejado de ser dimensiones restrictivas en el accionar de las personas, las instituciones, empresas y los gobiernos se expresa de manera singular en que las TIC:

- Están revolucionando la actividad educativa mundial con un alcance transversal extraordinario, en la totalidad de los sectores productivos y en particular en aquellos que utilizan en forma más intensiva la información como la educación.
- Son económicamente importantes porque facilitan la adopción de innovaciones complementarias y cambios organizativos en las universidades, cambian las condiciones competitivas y las estructuras de las competencias profesionales de las empresas.
- Tienen una contribución directa en el desarrollo de la formación ya sea mediante sus “productos” o bien a través de la difusión de su uso en la Internet.
- Apuntan hacia la optimización del uso de los recursos en las universidades, induciendo aumentos de eficiencia en los servicios al cliente interno y externo. Todo esto apoyado en las potencialidades implícitas de las TIC en el ámbito de la generación, procesamiento y distribución de la información.
- Su empleo permite a la gerencia empresarial visualizar tanto en sus formas de operar, como en sus maneras de relacionarse con el entorno.

Este escrito es relevante en la medida que permite pensar en las tendencias más recientes que se están produciendo como resultado del impacto social de las TIC en la educación, entre ellas una que es fundamental es el cambio de concepciones de la formación, al punto que han estado surgiendo concepciones ligadas a este proceso.
¿Qué está pasando con la capacitación empresarial a nivel mundial?

Cuando se estudió la literatura acerca del estado actual del tema de la formación asistida por las TIC\textsuperscript{12}, se pudo comprobar la importancia que ha adquirido la formación profesional en línea sobre todo en el sector empresarial y universidades donde el compromiso con el desarrollo de proyectos productivos es fuerte. Esto se constata, por ejemplo, en como una multinacional IBM la cual declara proveer el 26\% de sus capacitaciones en el entorno virtual. Manpower Learning Center, por su parte, propone más de 1 000 cursos en línea. Mientras que Siemens, Motorola y Kellogg, entre otras, tienen sus propias universidades para capacitar a su personal y con sistematicidad recurren a las tecnologías numéricas multimedia [Fischer 2004].

Otero [2014], menciona que hoy la demanda de soluciones de e-learning crece de forma significativa, tanto en el entorno académico como en el corporativo. A nivel europeo, las previsiones para el 2014 indican un repunte importante en el nivel de inversión, tal como indica un informe reciente de EdTech Europe. Una predicción que se ve reforzada por la tendencia global positiva registrada el año pasado, apuntada por la consultora Deloitte, que cifraba en 130 mil millones de dólares el incremento del gasto en formación corporativa.

Así mismo Otero [2014], dice que el sector educativo concentra gran parte del negocio en e-learning, un total de 966 mil millones de dólares de gasto en Europa el 2012, mientras que la empresa sólo dedicó 71 millones. En un mundo laboral que demanda ciclos formativos más ágiles, continuamente actualizados y con roles productivos más flexibles, el sector corporativo ve cada vez más clara la necesidad de apostar por los nuevos entornos de aprendizaje. En esta carrera, España y Reino Unido lideran el uso del e-learning en el ámbito europeo con un 56\% y un 53\% de trabajadores que lo utilizan, respectivamente.

El objetivo de estas inversiones ha sido el de aumentar la eficacia pedagógica de los cursos de capacitación que se organizan en línea. La idea es que las nuevas ciberempresas de formación profesional se multipliquen como las sociedades punto.com.

El X Congreso Internacional de Berlín Online Educa, realizado en Berlín en el 2005, contó con una participación de 1703 personas de 66 países del mundo (provenientes de los sectores académico, gubernamental y corporativo). En este evento se determinó que el 61\% de los consultados

\textsuperscript{12}Los antecedentes del empleo de la Internet para el desarrollo de la educación datan de la década del 70', momentos en que numerosos estudiantes ya habían desarrollado el hábito de comunicarse entre ellos por módem mediante redes tales como ARPANET, fundada en 1969; y luego, a partir de 1986, a través de NSFNET. Por lo que las comunidades universitarias paulatinamente se transformaron en Universidades en línea, primero las norteamericanas, luego la Open City University de Gran Bretaña y después la Universidad Virtual Africana. Francia y Canadá también tienen experiencias relevantes en este sentido.
están tercerizando sus operaciones de aprendizaje y entrenamiento, al tiempo que el 64% sienten que sus superiores corporativos tienen una actitud muy positiva respecto a esta tendencia [Subotovsky 2005].

Los aspectos planteados, unidos a su práctica en variedad de países, sugieren que la formación del profesional y el desarrollo de sus componentes pedagógicos se encuentran inmersos en una etapa de grandes transformaciones [Organización Internacional del Trabajo, 2004]. Ello se corrobora además en sus múltiples tendencias. La más relevante es que la formación asistida por las TIC se está configurando como uno de los factores más importantes de desarrollo y mejora de los países (empresas y sus ciudadanos), a partir del hecho de que este estilo de formación genera crecimiento, ocupación, madurez y oportunidades para todos [Naranjo & Gonzalez 2010].

La inversión en recursos digitales

Según González & Naranjo [2011], la inversión en recursos digitales para el desarrollo de la gerencia empresarial exige:

- Priorizar las aplicaciones que facilitan la gestión interna de la gerencia empresarial, desde protección antivirus y diseño de sitios Web hasta gestión de conocimientos e información comercial. No es suficiente con navegar en la Internet o usar el correo electrónico. Ahora abundan las aplicaciones empresariales de TIC: almacenamiento de datos, planificación de recursos, mercados digitales, motores de búsqueda y sistemas de gestión de contenidos.

- Las fuerzas de la gerencia empresarial aprovechan tanto los recursos físicos como los recursos virtuales en la gerencia empresarial. No se deben desconocer enteramente los medios tradicionales como la documentación impresa, los catálogos, la venta directa por correo o los locales de atención al público.

- Para aprovechar las ventajas de la World Wide Web, es estratégico diseñar sitios destinados a un público globalizado, con datos sobre procesos y contactos para la exportación, opiniones de clientes, recortes de prensa, informes de entidades de evaluación y comparaciones con competidores de otros países.

Pero a su vez cuando la empresa decide invertir no puede dejar de un lado la consideración ética según González & Naranjo [2012], se presenta un debate acerca de la relación ética, ciencia y tecnología, la cual parte del supuesto de que la ética está por encima, y es la que tiene que guiar a la ciencia y a la tecnología en su capacidad de servir al desarrollo del hombre.

Se reconoce que la ciencia y el desarrollo tecnológico brindan los medios y el conocimiento para construir grandes sistemas informáticos, pero es la ética hoy hace parte de la Responsabilidad Social Empresarial.
ca la que juzgará si es legítimo o no el aplicarlos o desarticularlos. En efecto, la ciencia y la tecnología no son neutras ni en los usos que se le pueda dar, ni en los medios que utiliza para alcanzar sus fines, que es el conocimiento. En este marco es importante reflexionar ante el rol de las Ciencias Informáticas, las cuales, tienen como base construir realidades de interacción social según su carácter socio-clasista. Sin embargo, en su posibilidad de actuar también está presente la posibilidad de presentar o construir esa realidad deformando los sentidos de acuerdo a lo que le interese al individuo. Por lo que el riesgo de manipular la realidad en función de la naturaleza valorativa de los intereses del ser humano, es un hecho que aguarda permanentemente cualquier área del saber y del ejercicio humano en el escenario de la informática.

Significado de los cambios para la gestión empresarial

Para el caso de la gestión empresarial es muy significativo el uso de la tecnología, debido a la trascendencia que tiene el crecimiento de la educación, por lo que la expansión que está teniendo tanto en la formación continúa como la ocupacional, se ve aumentada por las posibilidades que ofrecen las TIC. Una capacitación que cambia el enfoque desde el formador hacia el estudiante, desde el que enseña hacia el que aprende, desde la formación sincrónica a la asincrónica.

En términos pedagógicos una de las tendencias que se observa es que la formación a distancia clásica, basada en el aprendizaje independiente de los estudiantes mediante libros de texto, con un mínimo contacto con el docente, está dando paso a novedosas maneras de desarrollar la formación. Su rasgo fundamental se basa en que se concentra prioritariamente en el aprendizaje y en el estudiante, a diferencia de lo que hasta ahora ha predominado: un proceso de enseñanza centrado en el docente.

En este marco los enfoques acerca de la formación han venido distinguiéndose entre diversos “Modelos de Formación”, los cuales están ampliamente documentados e incluso algunos de ellos desarrollados Garcia [1995]. Tomando como argumento el grado de estructuración y de adaptación a los individuos, Chang & Simpson [1997], han sintetizado y clasificado los modelos de formación, de manera que permiten identificar básicamente cuatro modelos: Aprender DE otros (Cursos); Aprender SOLO (Autoformación); Aprender CON otros (Seminarios, Grupos), y Aprendizaje Informal o no planificado y abierto. Con estos cuatro modelos (o quizás cabría denominarlos modalidades por el mayor grado de concreción que hemos adoptado), pueden construirse una gran variedad de propuestas de actividades formativas, de lo que se deriva el grado de operatividad de esta clasificación.

Hasta ahora la formación había sido sinónimo de curso de formación, aunque hay que reconocer la existencia de múltiples experiencias de autofor-
mación y de seminarios y grupos de trabajo. La realidad en la formación conti
tinua y ocupacional está siendo muy distinta hoy. Por ello, las potencialidades 
que ahora se amplían con la introducción de las TIC para el impulso de la for-
mación son prometedoras. Una de las respuestas que los sistemas de forma-
ción están comenzando a perfeccionar que tiene como eje central el empleo 
de las TIC.

Para Picazo [2014] la educación del 2030, tendrá cambios significativos, 
por ejemplo las fuentes de conocimiento estarán representadas en un 43% 
por contenidos online; los certificados académicos seguirán siendo importan-
tes, pero los otorgados por las empresas tendrán un gran peso. Se estima que 
este representados en un 37%; los profesores serán en un 73% guías y men-
tores, el 8% para validar contenidos online; lo planes de estudio serán en un 
83% individualizados según las necesidades del estudiante.

Tránsito de la formación del profesional universitario desde un enfoque 
cognitivo a un enfoque socio-constructivista

Cuando profundizamos en la literatura sobre las modificaciones que se están 
produciendo en las condiciones en que cada vez más se emplean las TIC al 
proceso docente, se observa que es trascendente el tránsito de la formación 
del profesional universitario desde un enfoque cognitivo a un enfoque socio-
constructivista que coloca el énfasis en el empleo de las TIC. En esta dirección 
predominan otras teorías como la del aprendizaje colaborativo [Casado S.F.] y 
el conductismo, aspectos sobre los que habría que investigar más con la finali-

dad de dar mayor sentido y coherencia a la práctica de la formación asistida 
por las TIC y sus complejas interrelaciones.

En este sentido podemos esbozar algunas ideas que comparten los auto-
res de este escrito. Una de ellas es que se está ante una “nueva formación” 
que exige que se generalice más, en lo que es relevante la importancia de una 
especialización más concreta que se aplique de forma paulatina y que permita 
incluso crear nuevos caminos, y que llegue a un mayor número de personas, 

es decir que se avance hacia el crecimiento de la educación, con el reto de 
que se reduzcan los costos de su desarrollo.

A estas necesidades creadas por la propia socialización de la tecnología, 
se le pueden dar respuesta o al menos a parte de ellas, a través de su propio 
contenido, empleando la propia tecnología y apropiándonos de su contenido 
social para dar respuesta a las necesidades del entorno empresarial. Por ello 
podremos y tenemos que pensar en contar con la estructura tecnológica y 
pedagógica relacionada con las TIC para dar respuesta a la nueva formación 
que se abre paso sin preguntarnos.

La nueva formación en varios sentidos, permite que la enseñanza llegue 
a todos sin necesidad de ocupar espacios físicos que conlleven a traslados de
personas. Nunca antes habíamos necesitado emplear herramientas que rompen con la relación espacio-temporal para el desarrollo de la educación, favoreciendo un aprendizaje más flexible e interactivo; y otra porque las formas para apropiarnos de esa formación empleando las TIC también son modernas.

Ello se expresa en que para la interacción entre formador-estudiantes y los propios estudiantes entre sí, se establecen herramientas de comunicación sincrónica y asincrónica, tales como: correo electrónico, chat y listas de distribución. Estas permiten que se pueda dar un intercambio rápido y eficaz de ideas, materiales y actividades. Cuestión que se presenta con una naturaleza compleja y multifacética, al pasar por definir estructuras pedagógicas y tecnológicas acordes con los requerimientos de las transformaciones en curso.

¿Qué transformar en el proceso formativo?

Cuando se habla de cambio y formación asistida por las TIC, no se trata de transformar todo el proceso formativo de manera que esté subordinada al proceso tecnológico, sino de realizar una integración entre los canales que la tecnología ofrece y los actuales procesos de formación. De hecho el camino más adecuado para el desarrollo de la formación asistida por las TIC se basa en maniobrar con una posible integración con otros modelos de formación convencionales. Se fundamenta además, en establecer y desarrollar competencias profesionales respecto a la acción formativa a la que se aplica, y en la toma de conciencia del impacto de este cambio en las personas y en las organizaciones. La idea es que la introducción de las TIC en el proceso de capacitación empresarial, deberá seguir una lógica pedagógica, donde la tecnología sea el medio para llegar a ello, y no el fin [Bahlis Dos Santos 2005].

Por consiguiente, el fenómeno de la formación empleando las TIC conduce a considerar permanentemente, entre otras cosas, las intencionalidades del plan de capacitación, la ecología del aula, los procesos cognitivos, el tipo de empresa que se espera ayudar a construir y el saber disciplinar y transdisciplinar con sus secuencias, vinculaciones y las diferentes maneras de abordarlo. Cada uno de estos aspectos constituye componentes didácticos, sobre los cuales abundan discusiones y proposiciones orientadas a lograr que su desarrollo se realice con la mayor coherencia, pertinencia y significatividad.

En este sentido Picazo [2014], también menciona en su texto La educación del 2030, que dentro de este proceso transformativo, los conocimientos académicos estarán en un 75% marcados por las habilidades personales, por encima del conocimiento académico y las habilidades prácticas sin embargo, también hay algo importante que menciona la autora de este estudio y es que el 93% de los métodos innovadores estarán basados en la creatividad, o sea que la innovación en el futuro de la educación estará mucho más valorada que ahora.
Relación costo-beneficio del empleo de las tic en la capacitación empresarial

En otras palabras, la formación empleando las TIC en la gerencia empresarial, pasa por la idea de observar el manejo del término tecnología apropiada. Aspecto que por su contenido se refiere a su empleo de acuerdo a la disponibilidad de recursos locales, evitando los gastos innecesarios, priorizando las necesidades más importantes en este caso de la formación, y definiendo el coste-beneficio. Con relación a su implementación según Pozo & Gayo [2003]:

Tiene que ver para el empresario con el de rentabilidad. Esta ha de ser tal que hace los ingresos superen a lo largo de la vida del proyecto la inversión y los costes empleados, dando una tasa de rentabilidad compatible con el riesgo asumido, en el horizonte temporal de utilización comercial de los resultados. El concepto de coste para el científico es el necesario para financiar su investigación y obtener la aprobación del ámbito científico. Por esto, a la hora de poner precio a lo obtenido el empresario piensa en el valor que va a añadir al potencial cliente y llega a un pacto de mercado de reparto, mientras que el científico piensa por lo general como obtener un sobreprecio sobre el coste de lo realizado, sin tener demasiado en cuenta las reglas del mercado.

El hecho es que el desarrollo tecnológico o la transferencia de una tecnología, para que pueda tener la categoría de “apropiada”, deberán darse solo después de un exhaustivo análisis y valoración respecto a cada contexto, sin caer en la tentación de importar modas o técnicas que respondan a otra realidad cultural, social, económica o medio-ambiental.

En efecto, es evidente la necesidad de propuestas de empleo de las TIC en el plano del desarrollo de la formación con rasgos apropiados y críticos de los tiempos que corren, en lo cual, es relevante diseñar propuestas educativas a modo de intervenciones reales y virtuales innovadoras, aterrizadas según perfiles de escenarios y actores con necesidades particulares, de manera que ello se adecue al contexto real para su apropiación. En este ámbito de situaciones, múltiples son las preguntas y respuestas claves que se plantean para el desarrollo de la formación asistida por las TIC, entre ellas sobresalen las siguientes:

- ¿Qué características debe presentar un proyecto de formación asistida por las (TIC)? ¿Qué encontramos en el ámbito de la formación asistida por las TIC?

En las instituciones que se crean exclusivamente para ofrecer e-learning (portales, empresas privadas, institutos virtuales, etc.), y universidades abiertas u otras instituciones educativas (institutos terciarios, de formación docente, colegios universitarios, etc.). Se encuentran:

- Una diversa tradición presencial, de distinta categoría y prestigio, tradicionales o sumamente innovadoras.
Empresas y personas, que con pocos medios y escasos recursos pedagógicos, se aventuran sin brújula ni ancla.

Grupos de pedagogos, informáticos, docentes, psicólogos, provenientes de excelentes proyectos tradicionales, tanto de capacitación como de formación.

Claro que ninguno de estos criterios indica que el proyecto de formación asistida por las TIC ofrecido es de calidad, ni siquiera el respaldo de una institución universitaria es suficiente. Hace falta una mirada integral y específica, que coloque la atención en los criterios de calidad de las modalidades que se ofrecen como experiencias.

Preguntas claves a considerar para el desarrollo de la formación asistida por las TIC en la gestión empresarial

Por consiguiente, en el marco de cualquier proyecto de formación asistida por las TIC habría que considerar preguntas claves a seguir en un proceso formativo **online**.

- La definición del objetivo: ¿Por qué se implanta? ¿qué beneficios se obtienen como organización?
- ¿Qué hacer para asegurar el éxito? ¿Sobre quienes incide este proceso?
- ¿Cómo implementar las fases de su ejecución? Las fases de este proceso de implantación, aunque no se diferencian mucho de un proceso de formación convencional, tienen importantes elementos diferenciales en su aplicación. Estas fases son: seleccionar las acciones formativas, generar un plan, ofrecer el plan y poner en marcha.
- ¿Cómo desarrollar la etapa de evaluación, seguimiento, medición de la satisfacción y emisión de competencias profesionales?
- ¿Qué alcance tendrá la formación en una u otra fase?
- ¿Cómo combinar lo presencial y lo virtual?
- ¿Cómo aprendemos, planificamos y organizamos en el marco de la formación asistida por las TIC?
- ¿Qué labor de prevención se debe desarrollar ante las barreras y resistencias que aparecen ante todo cambio?
- ¿Seremos capaces de comunicar y desarrollar seguridad y credibilidad en este ámbito?
- ¿Responde la empresa a los principios de escalabilidad tecnológica y funcional para el desarrollo de una formación asistida por las TIC?
Comentario final

Para dar respuesta a estas interrogantes es necesario considerar diferentes aspectos, entre ellos, superar los enfoques tecnológicos, funcionalistas y burocratizantes; buscando una naturaleza cultural-contextual y comunitaria. En ello es importante el compromiso de enfrentar los desafíos tecnológicos de principios del siglo XXI: comprender los contenidos, estrategias y alianzas; interpretar responsablemente a la cibercultura y atender científicamente el desarrollo de las potencialidades afectivas y socio-cognitivas y meta-cognitivas de cada estudiante, entre ellas, pensamiento, inteligencias y creatividad. En lo que es relevante la idea de no pasar por alto, la inserción y realización de profesional en un universo socio-cultural ampliamente influenciado por la competitividad, la productividad y la innovación.

De hecho una de las grandes tareas que incluye la planificación de una formación empleando los componentes de la innovación relacionados con las TIC, consiste en diagnosticar y precisar las características propias de la empresa donde se va a instrumentar. Cuestión que en la dinámica actual de la relación universidad-sociedad, universidad-empresa, requiere avanzar hacia un proceso de formación que involucre la dinámica productiva.

De ello se deriva la importancia de definir qué porcentaje del componente es presencial de acuerdo a los niveles no sólo a nivel de año, sino también de acuerdo a los cursos y proyectos de producción del núcleo principal de la empresa. A partir del trabajo por roles, lo cual implica una organización académica coherente con las dimensiones de los procesos productivos.

La idea es estar conscientes de la necesidad de implementar un proceso de formación empleando las TIC que lleve implícito tanto los componentes educativos como instructivos del proceso de aprendizaje.

Múltiples son las razones que indican la necesidad de pasar a un proceso de formación que combine las características de la formación tradicional con el empleo de las TIC. A continuación se presentan las más relevantes para los autores:

1. La dinámica productiva hacia la que se dirige la relación Universidad-Sociedad y Universidad-Empresa; convirtiéndose en centros productivos que atomizan los procesos de su desarrollo, lo cual requiere de una innovación en el plano de la enseñanza y el aprendizaje.
2. La existencia de diversidad de proyectos y tareas en las empresas y en las universidades en las que es muy difícil compaginar horarios y asistencia.
3. La dispersión geográfica de la población.
4. La adaptación a las TIC.
5. Las propias ventajas de la formación asistida por el empleo de las TIC en cuanto a la calidad en los programas y contenidos, el protagonismo del...
estudiante, la facilidad de uso con pantallas muy intuitivas y la flexibilidad de horarios. En otras palabras el desarrollo de la formación asistida por las TIC permite:

- Aprovechar la fortaleza que proporcionan las TIC para todas las actividades de formación, potenciando las competencias de la organización, de la sociedad y de sus miembros.
- Crear mayor talento en las organizaciones.
- Proporcionar mayor acceso a los servicios de formación.
- Personalizar el conocimiento con todas las ventajas implícitas de esta tendencia para el desarrollo de la enseñanza y el aprendizaje.

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The Business Model as a Concept of Enterprise Management in a Turbulent Environment

Introduction

Dynamics of changes in the contemporary economy requires the management of companies to meet the challenges of the market and seek new methods of management or adapt existing ones to the needs of the evolving economy. Due to the unpredictability and instability in the external environment, internal changes in the companies are necessary for the survival and success in the market. Maintaining a market advantage over its rivals is possible when the company re-examine and, if necessary, change the elements that decide about it.

When analyzing the current methods used to build competitive advantages in the context of enterprise search for optimal solutions that contribute to winning the competition in the market, it can be concluded that it is not enough today to have a unique product and innovative resources to survive in the market. Businesses, therefore, seek factors, methods, resources that allow them to gain an advantage over their competitors. Taking into account the economic conditions that currently occur has led to the emergence of new concepts of running a business. One of the organizational and management structures that can be used when looking for ways to build competitive advantage in conditions of instability of the environment is the business model [Jabłoński 2013, p. 220].

The purpose of this article is to discuss the business model as a concept of management used by contemporary companies that seek to build and sustain competitive advantage. On the basis of the literature and the author’s research the concept of the business model was defined as a universal formula that allows understanding of the functioning of the company. The possibility was
presented to change and improve a business model as a competitive advantage creating factor. The rationale for the research approach is the fact that the issue of business models is relatively poorly explored. The author conducts empirical research in this area, which can help to fill the existing gap.

Concept of business model

The concept of business model allows to show the organization as a whole composed of different elements. Business model in terms of the broad sense describes the formal and informal relationships in a company, takes into account the objectives, infrastructure, operational processes in the company and the policy pursued by the company [George, Bock 2011, pp. 83–90]. Business model in the strict sense does not have a single definition. Some authors when defining business model, determine its structure, and others indicate criteria of separation of the business model. The term business model is a mental shortcut, in reality it is a model of running business by the company.

In the literature on topics related to business models there are three approaches presented by authors [Gołębiowski, Dudzik, Lewandowska, Witek-Hajduk 2008, p. 19]:

- first approach (the highest level of abstraction) is focused on defining the concept of business model, the presentation of the elements constituting the business model and describes the business model as a theoretical concept, possible to be used in business practice;
- second approach includes a taxonomy of business models – there are presented abstract types of models with specific characteristics common to a particular type of model; this approach is used to identify typical business models, proven in the economy;
- third approach involves conceptualization and presentation of business models designed for a specific type of businesses; at this level there are presented case studies – descriptions of specific business models used in the surveyed enterprises.

The business model is a concept more and more commonly appearing in the scientific papers and practical studies. In the world literature, the concept of business model has been present for decades. For the first time the term was used in a scientific article by R. Bellman and C. Clark in 1957 describing the multiplayer business games. The increase in the number of publications in which the concept of business model was used was recorded beginning from the second half of the 90s, what was associated with the use of internet in business, which inspired changes in the methods of running business. One of the first papers, in which the classification of ten types of business models was included is the publication of P. Timmers [Timmers 1998, pp. 3–8]. The
number of scientific publications in the world’s literature, where the concept of business model appeared increased in the years 1997–2007 from 137 in 1997 to 1,387 in 2007. In 1995–1996, there were no publications on the topic [Gołębiewski, Dudzik, Lewandowska, Witek-Hajduk 2008, p. 16].

Defining a business model on the basis of current scientific achievements is extremely difficult. A review of the literature on business model performed by A. Osterwalder, Y. Pigneur, Ch.L. Tucci [Osterwalder, Pigneur, Tucci 2005, p. 10] and Ch. Zott, R. Amit, L. Massa [Zott, Amit, Massa 2011, p. 7] indicates there is no ambiguity in determining and understanding the term business model. In the literature, there is no single universally accepted definition of business model, because the researchers choose various components to define the concept of business model and distinguish multiple classifications of business models. Among the researchers on the topic of business models two different views on the nature of the concept are met. The first way to define a business model refers to the way in which the company operates, the second method refers to the model of running business, in which it is needed to identify the elements and relationships that describe running business. The first method of determining the concept of business model is presented by Galper, Gebauer and Ginsburg, while the second by Gordijn and Osterwalder [Osterwalder, Pigneur, Tucci 2005, p.17].

Authors studying the business models relate to different theoretical concepts in economics and management. Predominantly, researchers refer to the concept of value chain of M.E. Porter, enterprise resource theory of J. Barney, transaction costs theory of O. Williamson, economic development theory of J. Schumpeter and growth theory of E. Penrose. Usually they define cause and effect relationships between resources and main processes in which these resources are used and the economic effects of these processes. A review of the literature shows that the theoretical background of the business model is not clearly defined. Most researchers embeds the business model on the basis of strategic management [Falencikowski 2013, pp. 41–42].


Among definitions existing in the literature the author considers as interesting the one suggested by A. Afuah and Ch.L. Tucci. When shaping the definition of business model they adopt a systemic approach and state that business model is a method adopted by the company in order to increase and exploit resources to provide customers with products and services whose value exceeds the value offered by competitors, which also gives the company profitability. This model specifies the plan to make money both now and in the long term as well as factors conditioning the company to maintain a sustainable competitive advantage. This means achieving (in the long term) results better than the results of the competition. Generally speaking, the business model is a system composed of mutually interrelated components that interact with each other in time [Afuah, Tucci 2003, p. 20]. In his later work A. Afuah stresses that the priority of value creation stems from the perception of it as the most important to the company, the achievement of which gives the company a competitive advantage. The value’s most important financial dimension is profitability, whose level is significantly affected by the action performed by the company and the resources possessed by it [Afuah 2004, pp. 9–10].

Based on the analysis of the literature cited above it can be concluded that most authors stresses when determining business model that it is a way to describe the way of running business, indicating the sources of success or failure of the company. It is most often assumed that the business model is the method adopted by the company to use resources in order to provide customers with products whose value is higher than that of competitors.

The development of the concept of the business model in recent years proves that the authors verified the presented concepts as external conditions of doing business changed. Sometimes changes in the concept of business models were caused by internal factors and have their sources in the changes taking place in the enterprise. The change of the approach to defining business model stems from the observation of the environment and the need to anticipate the actions of competitors. In this context, one can speak of the continuity of the development of the concept of business models [Sierotowicz 2013, p. 1].

Business model changes due to changes in the external environment

External determinants of economic activity and their dynamics form the new challenges that must be met by the reasonably and efficiently functio-
ning companies. These changes require transformation of business model. Phenomena that have the greatest impact on the functioning of business include [Kapuś 2013, p. 68]:

- increasing turbulence of the business environment;
- shift from market capitalism dominated by value for shareholders to customer-oriented capitalism [Martin 2012, pp. 46–55];
- the growing importance of intangible resources such as ideas, information, relations, etc.;
- new forms of business competition – in the near future, competition will take new forms, will take place mainly between organized network structures, actively connecting business with entities forming knowledge;
- the growing disparity between the market value and the book value of businesses of the new economy [Boulton, Libert, Samek 2001, p. 10];
- increasing complexity of the functioning of business.

Changes taking place in companies under the influence of emerging trends in their environment require the transition to the formula of the smart and flexible company, which means a need to rebuild the company’s organizational structure and more efficient use of resources. In a rapidly changing environment businesses behave in different ways. There are four main ways of reaction [Nogalski 2009, p. 6]:

- passive companies – managers do not react to changing external conditions, do not undertake adapting projects; this results in a gradual loss of competitiveness of the company and increasing distance to leaders of the industry;
- reacting companies – managers respond to changes in external conditions of doing business with a delay, out of necessity they respond to regulatory changes, much less activity is observed in the case of market changes; this approach also conduces crisis situations to occur as a result of the loss of competitiveness;
- proactive business – managers predict future and try to anticipate forecasted trends; this behaviour becomes necessary in the turbulent economic conditions;
- active companies have the resources that enable them to shape the conditions of their operations; for example, leaders in the sector, innovators have such power; these companies are independent from external conditions.

The observed changes in the business environment, resulting in the shift of emphasis from traditional development factors such as capital, raw materials and traditional methods of management to modern factors (human
capital, intangible resources) and modern methods of management (bui-
ding relationships, cooperation) cause discussion on the changes in the con-
cept of business model, the need to create a new business model taking into 
account the specificity of the XXI century economy. The traditional business
model consists of separate components that need to come together and cre-
ate a whole for the management [Duczkowska-Piasecka (ed.), Poniatowska-
Jaksch, Duczkowska-Małysz 2013, p. 143]. The new business model is formed
by subsystems, between which there are multi-faceted relationships, interde-
pendencies and interactions. This reorientation of the business model is deri-
ved from the use of information technology and digitization. H.S. Gill states
that the competitiveness of modern enterprises will be determined by the
quality of the management of the business model [Gill 2001, p. 10].

The nature of the changes in the business model depends on the speci-
fic requirements of the sector in which the company operates. In many sec-
tors, the changes are so rapid that companies need to entirely re-define the-
ir business models. It happens that the company satisfying the needs of seve-
ral segments of customers, apply to each of them a different business model.
It is predominantly justified (though not easy to implement) by the desire to
displace competitors or be ahead of potential innovators in existing markets,
the intention of entering new markets, the desire to use resources more effi-
ciently or generate new revenue streams [Casadeus-Masanell, Tarzijan 2012,
p. 95].

Some authors analyze business models, in particular, in the context of
innovation in enterprises, emphasize that the new technologies are forcing
companies to change the rules of doing business. New products usually need
new business models and suggest the need to recognize the limitations of
current business models. R. Amit and Ch. Zott indicate that the more inno-
vative business model the more value the company can capture [Amit, Zott
2012, p. 45]. These authors, as the main reasons for changes in elements for-
moving business models, regard: the expansion of the Internet, as the causative
agent of new opportunities, creating new opportunities for business, chan-
ging horizons of operations of companies, allowing business partners to con-
nect via the network. These changes stemming from the external environ-
ment, cause changes in the functioning of enterprises.

H. Chesbrough and R.S. Rosenbloom note that not always companies
that contribute to the creation of new technologies can capture the benefits
derived from implementing innovations [Chesbrough, Rosenbloom 2000, p.
61]. When looking for an answer to the question, what is the reason for this,
they indicate that the implementation of a new product should be followed
by a change in the business model. Many authors sees a fundamental change
in the business model as a way to survive and expand a business. According
to some opinions business model innovation are more important than product innovations or those related to technology. H. Chesbrough argues that a better business model often beats a better idea or technology [Chesbrough 2007, pp. 12–17].

Managers need to make changes in particular elements of the business model in order to forestall competitors’ activities. Sometimes they need to re-define their business models. Successful implementation of a specific business model depends largely on the strength of competition (business models implemented by competitors), but also the strength of suppliers and customers. Redefining business models can also take place under the influence of changes in the macroeconomic environment of companies, such as the government’s economic policy, international conditions. The beneficiary of the value created by the company are both the customers and stakeholders. Taking into account the objectives and expectations of customers and stakeholders, particularly shareholders, may significantly influence the shape of business model. Customers contribute to the success of the organization, if they accept its product and service offer. The inclusion of value for the stakeholders to the concept of new business model seems important because the possibility to create potential of the company, make investment decisions, create a competitive advantage depend on the involvement of stakeholders. Modification of the business model should be based on the needs of the market and business model acceptance by customers and stakeholders.

The decision to renew business model is made by managers. M.W. Johnson, C.M. Christensen, H. Kagerman emphasize that the new business model must be implemented when in the light of the new challenges it is necessary to modify the essential elements that constitute a model: customers, the creation of value, resources and profit formula [Johnson, Christensen, Kagerman 2008, p. 61]. In the discussion on the need to change the business model the issue is taken whether the changes in the old business models should be evolutionary or radical. In the analyzed literature the prevailing view is that the changes should be of radical character. P. Strebel says that the rapid and discontinuous changes in the business environment require rapid action and discontinuous changes in the approach to business [Duczkowska-Małysz, Duczkowska-Piasecka 2012, p. 77]. T.H. Davenport, M. Leibold, S. Voelpel indicate the need for adopting a portfolio of business models instead of one business model, since it enables the creation of new value through new products; managers should in advance recognize the need for changes and contribute to the destruction of old models [Davenport, Leibold, Voelpel 2006, Wiley, p. 174].

Researchers predict that changes in the business models in the future will take place in the following areas [Duczkowska-Małysz, Duczkowska-Piasecka 2013, p. 24]:
a. in the area of the market – instead of operating in the internal, national market, operating in the global market; instead of solid relations with customers – dynamic, creative, virtual relations;

b. in the area of technology and technique – instead of one method of products manufacturing, varied, numerous productive techniques (the presence of a number of business models in a single organization), rapid changes of technology;

c. in the area of products – instead of physical products, manufactured in long lifecycles, digital or virtual services, processes, products;

d. in the area of competence – instead of solid competence, developed within the organization, dynamically changing, flexible competence, developed on the basis of partners;

e. in the area of innovation of business model – instead of constant models changed evolutionarily – a lot of dynamic, flexible models;

f. in the area of criteria of success – instead of individual success, successes achieved through cooperation, based on innovation, the functioning in the global market.

The problem of changes in business models is rarely the subject of analysis in the literature. The authors discussing this issue emphasize that in order to reduce the risks associated with too hasty change of the model process of changing business model should be based on a detailed analysis of company resources [TGołębiowski, Dudzik, Lewandowska, Witek-Hajduk 2008, p. 54]. J.C. Linder and S. Cantrell on the basis of analysis of the performance of business models of 70 companies stated that the most efficient business models are characterized by the following features [Linder, Cantrell 2001, pp. 10–12]:

- offering a unique value for the buyer,
- enhancing relationships “value in use – the cost of acquiring the value in use”,
- difficulty of imitating business model,
- embedding business model on realistic assumptions about the behaviour of buyers.

Summary

The business model is one of the new concepts of management, which is used by businesses seeking to build a competitive advantage in conditions of instability of environment. Review of world and Polish literature on business models indicates that the subject of business models is not well established in the literature on the topic of business management. The author discusses
in the paper the possibility of using the concept of business model in business management under turbulent external environment. A gap in the area of research on business models requires further in-depth research both theoretical and empirical.

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Conciliation as an Extrajudicial Solution Decision of Labor Conflicts in the Business Enterprise

Introduction

The last 30 years have been marked by a process of profound structural changes that have managed to redesign the way of economic production, political institutions and how social and cultural life of people around the planet. To refer to this series of changes the concept of globalization was developed [Stiglitz 2002].

In academic terms, globalization can be defined as an economic, technological, social and cultural scale process that involves the increased communication and interdependence among countries of the world uniting their markets, societies and cultures, through a series of social, economic and political transformations that give them a global character [Escalera 2007].

Companies that are most affected by the phenomenon of globalization and the opening of the markets are small and medium enterprises (SMEs) because it requires employers to acquire new skills and ways of performing business. According to Escalera [2007], most of the organizations see this phenomenon as a threat, however it not only brings difficulties, but there is also the possibility that by making efficient decisions the enterprise can achieve a solid financial management and improve the market position.

Currently there are countless methodologies and tools for management within companies in different administrative areas, so usually confusion is
created when applying because the managers does not have experience in using them and this leads to rather give good results only hinder the process of decision making.

Alternative dispute resolutions are smart ways to resolve disputes in an organized and consensual manner, making agreements that are beneficial for both parties. In Mexico the implementation of alternative dispute resolutions was embodied in the Constitution of the Mexican United States with the constitutional reform of June 18, 2008, with which the system introduced tools such as negotiation, conciliation, mediation and arbitration, allowing to apply these in daily practice for people and organizations that brings effective solutions to the generated controversy.

Among the main disputes that arise in organizations and have become increasingly complex due to the reforms in the legislation applied there are labor, conciliation is fundamental and important in this type of conflict, and that if companies consider the benefits of this tool the Court of Conciliation and Arbitration would not be in such a overwork, also these tools maintain a relationship of trust and mutual respect between workers and employers, and with this they would try to resolve their differences without a need for a legal process and reach an agreement that is satisfactory to both parties [Rodriguez 2002].

Therefore this research focuses on showing decision makers within the organization the benefits that conciliation as an alternative dispute resolution for labor disputes out of court can have, so that they know different ways to solve the same problem, with the purpose to reach peaceful and efficient labor-management solutions, leading the company to have greater internal efficiency and remain longer in the market.

Theoretical framework

DECISION MAKING

The current environment where organizations are developing is characterized by the level of competition with the current markets, this have led companies to make constant changes within their structures to cope positively to them, within relevant issues faced by companies is the opening of the markets, which ceased to be a limitation so now there is not only local competition but nowadays the challenge is work against companies around the world [Contreras 2007].

Therefore most companies must make decisions to achieve a good position and have a sustainable competitive advantage against the competition, so it is important that organizations seek always meet the demands of their environment and use their abilities and core skills to achieve such a competitive advantage [Cornelis 2001].
Decision making can be defined in different ways according to the author that we consult in this regard Davis [2001] tells us that the decision-making occurs in response to a problem, an inconsistency between what things are and how they should being, in turn Simon [1979] indicates that decision-making involves a choice, conscious or unconscious of certain actions among all who are physically possible, on the other hand Stoner [1996] defines decision making as an important part of the work of any manager or administrator of a company, since it relates the present circumstances of the organization to actions that would be taken in the future.

The decision making process is based on following a series of steps whereby it will be defined what will be done with the purpose to achieve the best possible solution, analyzing situations that have become increasingly complex. The number of steps the processes of decision making varies depending on the author being consulted, however regardless of this always has the same beginning and the same purpose, primarily a problem is detected and seeks to select a solution or course of action to follow.

About the decision making process, Chiavenato [2006] indicates that it consists of seven steps, which are: perception of the situation, analysis and problem definition, definition of objectives, search for alternatives, selection of alternative, evaluation and comparison of the alternatives and finally implementation of the alternative. Furthermore, Robbins [2005] notes that there are eight steps that must follow the decision-making process, which begins with the identification of the problem, then identifying the decision criteria, assigning weights to the criteria, development of the alternatives, selection of an alternative, implementation of the alternative and to conclude the evaluation of the efficiency of the decision.

In this regard the decision-making process for Daft [2007] it is only of two steps which are problem identification and solution thereof, in other hand Drucker [2006] argues that there are six steps that must be followed to make a decision which begins with the classification problem, then the definition of itself, establish the conditions that must satisfy the answer to the problem, decide on what is right, include in the decision the actions to be carried out and finally establish control to check its validity.

With the information provided by previous authors is that the decision-making process starts by identifying a problem or simply perceiving the situation involving a problem, so it is first necessary to be aware of the existence of a problem and define its characteristics; after having it identified can find the different possible solutions, which are analyzed and evaluated to subsequently select the most appropriate and implement it.

Because of this the enterprises must know that there are different types of problems that can occur in different ways, first we can find convergent
problems that are those that have a single solution or a set of defined solutions and we also found divergent that are those with an unspecified number of possible responses that depend on the creativity of the person [Espindola 2005].

CONCILIATION

Alternative dispute resolutions (ADR) have been named differently in various parts of the world, which results in uneven progress in different parts of the world. Speaking of our context the different tools such as mediation, conciliation, arbitration and negotiation were first introduced in some states in the years before the constitutional reform of 2008, before the paradigms on the right and to the changes and needs that have emerged in society, ADS are introduced with constitutional and legal character through the constitutional reform of 2008.

In a matter of ADR is that these are tools that allow end the problem without the need to activate the court, further González [2004] says: “The ADR are processes that can be used to resolve differences amicably flexible without the need for purely adversarial methods”.

To better understanding what conciliation as ADR means, in this respect with the information provided by Cucarella [2003] the Ministry of Justice and Law [1988], Reed [1994], the Center for Conciliation [2000] and Folberg and Taylor [1997], we developed our own definition of conciliation, which is presented below: “Conciliation is a useful tool which has three key elements, such as the subjective element (the parties) objective element (conflict), and methodological element (conciliation procedure) which serves as an option to solve the differences between two or more persons in conflict, in which someone outside the same plays the role of an intermediary to direct the solution that the parties make, this procedure may be judicial or extrajudicial”.

An important aspect of the settlement is that it can be studied from two points of view, judicial and extrajudicial, about this Pelayo [2011] argues that conciliation can be in two ways, judicial and extrajudicial, the first one is developed as a part within a legal process and the second one is voluntary and is not linked to a demand, making it more flexible and giving the parts more options for reaching an agreement.

In relation to the benefits that can be achieved by using alternative dispute resolutions, Caivano [1998] mentions that it eliminates the problem in the first instance before going to the court, besides resorting to a third neutral party who summons and facilitates the resumption of dialogue, and also this person can make suggestions for consideration of alternative solutions and so the parties can evaluate them within their alternatives when they cannot reach an agreement, but the parties always have the power to accept or reject the suggestions made.
With respect to the characteristics of conciliation Marquez [2004] identifies the following ones:

a) Voluntary. Because only can be initiated, continued and concluded with the will of the parties. This is that parts are free to participate or not in the conciliation process.

b) Confidentiality. Because the information provided by the parts to the conciliator are not disclosed.

c) Impartiality. Because the conciliator may not be related to any part, so he does not have any inclination to favor the interests of any of them.

d) Neutrality. Because the conciliator cannot form any alliance with the parts.

Furthermore Ledesma [2000] identifies different characteristics required by conciliation to be an efficient alternative means of resolving conflicts, these ones are:

a) The autonomy of the parties. Whereby, is explicit when it is determined that the agreement rests solely depends on the will of the parties.

b) Flexibility. Characterizes the minimum of formalities to be observed but not in any way limit the development of the conciliation process.

c) The formulas of solution. They cannot be considered mandatory in any way, since the alternative of solutions made by the conciliator are only proposals.

d) The binding effect. Since the agreements reached by the parts are written in an act and are mandatory.

To better understand the conciliation process is necessary to identify the steps that comprise it, the procedure has 4 stages that are: the initiation stage or opening, the fixation step of the conflict, the negotiation stage mediated and stage of closure. Below are developed in detail in what constitutes each of these stages to identify the elements that vent in each one (see Table 1).

### Table 1. Stages of conciliation process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initiation stage or opening</td>
<td>It is the stage where the conciliation procedure begins and it assumes that the parts know the day and time to undertake the process, also they have to know the characteristics, results and effects of the process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixation stage of the conflict</td>
<td>This step is vital to propose possible solutions, is where the scope of the conflict is set, i.e., the causes and background are determined, its nature and how it is observed by both of the parts, and finally perceives what would be for both of them an equitable solution.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mediated negotiation stage

In this stage the conciliator role becomes important, as it begins to reveal the true importance of the process and work on the rationality of the proposals with the objective to make and arrangement that both parts benefit from.

Closing stage

This stage can obtain two results, one side can be negative, ie that the parts cannot reach an agreement and on the other hand positive, which occurs when the parts arrive to a solution accepted by both, ending the conflict without going to trial.

Source: own elaboration with information from Landazábal [1993].

The main effect of this procedure, or rather its most desirable consequence is obtaining an agreement, such as to provide executive merit and have the force of res judicata.

For the agreement referred to produce these effects should be included in a report signed by the parts, the conciliator and the secretary, which is contested by the same defects that affect legal acts. This is possible because the agreement achieved by the parts is just that, an act achieved with the help of an impartial third party, requiring as particular requirements, not only that the right is freely available, but the parts have to give their consent, also they hold the right to be discussed and are also able to dispose of it legally.

The effects of res judicata and chief merit are produced in the minutes in which the agreement is entered and provided that this meets all formal requirements. With respect to the importance and impact of the agreement signed by the parts within the conciliation Landazábal [1993] tells us that: “As a result of these effects, the agreement reached may be enforced coercively without prior proceedings, such as recognition of signature or text document. Similarly, the difference shall be settled without on that same point may be interested a new agreement or a different decision, either judicial or arbitral character”.

METHODOLOGICAL REFERENCES

The methodology used in this research is qualitative type, which is within the broad sense of the description of descriptive data, information is obtained from the words of the people, talk or written, observable behaviors and yields a detailed and real study of the phenomenon, that is how they live the problem of small and medium business enterprises [Taylor 1987].

The data collection instruments that were used in this research are:

- The interview that this is a resource used by the investigator to gather information by asking questions that arise directly, personal and oral to the selected subjects.
- The second technique for data collection was the documentary which is used in order to obtain data and information from written documents within the organization.
Finally latest collection technique is observation which measures the behavior of participants, turning into witness in a given context.

Results

The first thing that was done was to detect the people who were responsible for taking decisions of labor disputes within the organization, resulting in the following:

- The owner. It is the person who is responsible for most decisions within the organization, including the solution that will be given to labor problems; the main decisions taken are those that are unscheduled.

- Accountant / Lawyer. This person plays both roles within the organization, is limited knowledge on cutting-edge issues in both areas, in this sense its decisions are influenced by ideas from outside consultants.

Among the problems that were detected in the way in which decisions within labor conflicts within the organization are taken is that when calculating the settlement is not any modification and cannot be submitted an additional proposal by the worker, making the problems often go to trial.

Through research instrument of observation steps used by commercial enterprise to develop the process of decision making were found, which are similar to those raised by Chiavenato [2005], however the company only uses six steps posed by the aforementioned author. This determines if the company has a defined the decision making process, but problems are detected when considering the possible solutions, since often only 2 or 3 of them are analyzed and proposals regarding alternative dispute resolution in specific conciliation as a means of settling labor disputes are unknown by all the decision makers, so they cannot achieve the benefits this ADR could bring to the organization.

Within results obtained by the company of the resignations of employees from 2010 to 2014 the following results were obtained:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of resignations</th>
<th>16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of resignations that were not on trial</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of resignations that went to trial</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of trials that were resolved before the end of the trial</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of trials that were resolved by court order</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above data we proceeded to analyze cases and the following results were obtained:

- The judgments that were resolved before the end of the trial had as characteristic that the agreement reached by worker-employer was about the amount of the liquidation.
Within the judgments that were not resolved until the court decision it was found that the worker-employer relationship became controversial and difficult to solve this problem.

Another result that was found in the analysis of cases brought to trial is that they certainly could be resolved before arriving there, because in all the cases at the beginning of the process the owner took a new position about the amount of the liquidation, something he could do before starting the judicial activity and thus avoid spending time and money for the company and for the worker.

Finally it was found that neither the owner nor the accountant / lawyer knew the conciliation process as an alternative dispute resolution in specific within the labor area, just as they were not aware of the benefits it could bring to use this tool and cost reductions that it could bring.

Conclusions

Within organizations alternative dispute resolution are tools that allow disputants find a peaceful and friendly way to end the controversy. The conciliation extrajudicial in the settlement of labor disputes allows both, employers and workers to achieve rapid, economic and bilateral agreement which allows both sides to create a harmonious environment and thus improve labor relations and internal performance of the company, allowing in this way to get better results and remain longer on the market.

Within the Mexican economy, the largest number of companies on the market are small and medium, representing 98% of firms in the country, demonstrating the need to make correct decisions that enable them to save time and money to cope with rapid changes on the market today, in order not only to stay longer there, but also to improve their position.

A peaceful and amicable resolution of worker-employer conflicts can get to create a harmonious work environment within the organization, allowing on one hand to improve the performance of workers within companies and secondly to create by the use of conciliation extrajudicial practical solutions to problems that arise within it, which would generate acceptable agreements by the parts and to increase the efficiency the process of decision making.

In the present investigation the results involve using the courts as means of resolving labor disputes within the commercial enterprise, showing that the decision makers within the organization do not see any different mode of settlement, such as alternative dispute resolutions, specific conciliation extrajudicial, it is because the enterprise does not have a correct decision making process, since not all possible alternative solutions were analyzed and only goes to trial to be conventional, so the benefits that bring the application of ADR within the organization is decreasing the time it takes to solve
a problem, achieving economic savings and allowing the generation of agree-
ments that will benefit both employers and workers are lost, and with the
constant use of the ADR it can create longer relationships that are able to
meet the needs brought about by the globalized world.

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Processes and Models of Change in Family Businesses

Change in a family business

Observing behavioural patterns in members of a business family both in family and business circles leads to the conclusion that introducing a change is a difficult process as it meets, irrespective of the kind of change, a multi-layered resistance. It is difficult to combat both individual and group unwillingness to undergo a change [Sułkowski, Marjański 2009].

Fear of becoming involved into something new causes individuals to close themselves in a milieu which they are acquainted with. People are attached to being in “familiar” surroundings and they have a tendency to apply well-developed and well-known behavioural patterns even if they are aware of these patterns’ ineffectiveness.

From the point of view of a family business, generational changes seem to be the most painful when all concerns connected with the change emerge [Davis, Tagiuri 1996]. Kets de Vries, Carlock and Florent-Treacy [2007] showed a model of introducing a change in family businesses by individuals. The model comprises five stages and works together with the theory of unfreeze, change, freeze by Lewin [1958].

The model is featured in Figure 1.
The preliminary stage in introducing a change is for individuals in a family business to feel misgivings whose causes may affect a variety of aspects in the activity of a family business. Factors which lead to misgivings include, among others, a difficult family situation (tense atmosphere), health-related problems, accidents, negative impact of the surroundings, feeling isolated, which brings about inability to act, and the loss of security and enhanced helplessness. However, misgivings can also be aroused by common, everyday frustrations and seemingly minor incidents which have the potential to throw an individual off balance.

The next stage is connected with long-term misgivings which may result in coming up with an idea how to change such a state. Finding themselves under constant pressure, individuals are no longer able to reject the necessity of change. Crisis entails and individuals appear to notice the intensification of their dissatisfaction. It is when one can observe the appearance of the need to introduce a radical change, one might say “a revolution” which will improve the whole situation (in contrast to small steps and changes in beha-
viour which do not bring long-term effects). Although individuals are aware of what is about to come, it does not mean they address the issue immediately. There is a long way from realizing that old behavioural patterns are ineffective and cause more harm than good to changing them. As a rule, people first consider all the pros and cons and then seek an alternative before they decide to act.

The acceptance of the need to change is the first step towards implementing measures intended to draw benefits that a change may bring. It is usually necessary to gain an insight which brings about a breakthrough. An insight should be understood as a sudden, unexpected change in the perception of reality which leads to its new and deeper understanding. Although it may at first sight come across as a trivial event, it, however, makes an individual see and realize what the problem consists in. The subjective impression of an insight is usually negative. Yet, it is significant as it brings attention to the problem which has existed for a long time and has not been perceived as a threat. Then, the internal barrier defending itself against change begins to weaken. Thanks to it, an individual is capable of spotting new possibilities and solutions.

The next step leading to change is to declare change publicly. The character of the said declaration may be more or less public but the rule is to impart one’s intention of introducing specific changes to others. Thanks to it, an individual is motivated to undertake new initiatives. The awareness of the inescapability of change of a given person’s surrounding circle of people as well the process of change already commenced become a driving force behind the intensification of activities and additional motivation.

At the stage of implementing concrete measures, steps that are made use of are the ones which have been taken before and have created favourable grounds for activities such as aims verification and experimentation with new possibilities. Ideas and plans take shape and are developed enough to be realized. The purpose of such a process is to deepen knowledge and extend experience which make it possible to effect changes. People reorganize their outlook and change their perception of a situation which contributes to achieving the aim of change implementation.

The last stage of an individual change is to introduce it in real life and adapt one’s life to it. The adaptation also comprises the acceptance of one’s new role or even “identity” and self-reflection.
Research on changes in family businesses

The research conducted between 2012 and 2014 on a sample of 387 family businesses allowed to identify areas where changes are introduced in diverse time perspectives. The most frequent changes are introduced in a coordinating and personal area. As many as 63% of the subjects declared that changes in these two areas are realized in all analyzed perspectives. Operational changes concern, as it was described by the subjects, “replicability at job positions”, “everyday instructions”, “internal settlements”, “verifying employees’ qualifications”, “developing new skills”, “remuneration and bonus plan” and “introducing new products and services”. Over 82% of the subjects pointed to succession as a change which relates to at least one area of management, while 37% recognized that it relates to all the analyzed areas of management and decision-making. In the personal area the problem raised concerned the election of a successor (personal dimension), his/her competence (the dimension of coordinating tasks in a company), allocation of funds for training and development of managerial skills necessary to fulfil the position of a manager (allocating-personal dimension) and development of the succession plan (strategic dimension). Figure 2 shows the results of the research done in two stages in 2012 and 2014.

**Figure 2. The distribution of succession assignment as a change in various decision-making areas of a family business (n=387)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>staff</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coordination</td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an allocation</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strategic</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own elaboration.

The survey touched upon the idea of using models for introducing a change. The subjects, not being able to specify the kind of model, enumerated activities.

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14 The sample was selected from the population of 200,000 of family or potentially family entities, which makes up approximately 60% out of 299,000 of all family businesses in the Wielkopolska Region. The analyzed sample constitutes the minimum value for 0.5 fraction and maximum error of 5% and the confidence interval of 0.05. The survey was conducted on 112 entities in 2012, 151 family businesses in 2013 and 124 in 2014.
vities they follow when a decision to effect a change is being taken and when the whole process is being realized. Thanks to that the activities were adjusted to the models for introducing a change. In the sample of 384 companies, the owners and other decision-makers quoted intuitive processes to be widely used in introducing changes, which corresponds to the psychodynamic model [Więcek-Janka 2006]. This method was declared by 62% of the subjects for operational changes and 45% for strategic changes. Most often, however, the subjects declared the introduction of changes in accordance with the life-cycle model in both operational changes (57%) and strategic changes (70%).

The strategies for introducing a change and the place and role of a leader and other employees

In in-depth group interviews conducted among 25 entrepreneurs in 2014, the subjects, who were recruited from family businesses, specified attributes necessary for the effective introduction of changes. They listed the personality of a leading individual (change leader), the business model of a family business and culture (of the business, family, individual).

The effective operation of a family business and its development is often contingent on a leading individual (leader, manager, owner). Such a person takes decisions, assigns tasks, manages the company. Out of many roles played by such a person, two leadership roles are of particular significance: the one connected with tasks implementation and the one supporting the sustainability of the family and business. The ability to fulfil both of these functions is linked with the efficiency of leadership. In practice, the leader is able to fulfil only one of the above roles. It is caused by the fact that the above-mentioned functions are reflected in dissimilar leadership styles. Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert [2001] defined the notion of leadership styles as the application of behavioural patterns used by leaders when managing employees and exerting influence on them. Owners of family businesses with the technocratic management style exercise close supervision over both employees and family members. They believe they need to act in this way to make sure tasks are executed properly. They pay greater attention to the execution of work than to the development or satisfaction of family members and employees. Owners of family businesses following a democratic style focus more on providing motivation. They strive after building friendly, respectful and trustworthy relations between family members and other employees who have their share in the decision-making process.

Taking care of a harmonious development of individuals, family and company requires the application of a management style based on democratic foundations of parental character enabling to maintain interpersonal relations that are typical of a family. It is important, however, to adapt the orga-
nization of work, motivation and supervision to the specific type of each subsystem.

In order to verify management styles, Reddin’s Management Style Diagnosis Test was carried out among owners of family businesses [1991, pp. 111–120]. The author of the test distinguished, in accordance with Blake’s and Mouton’s methodology, two variables constituting the management style matrix. The first style involves concentration on people, the second one concentration on aims. Such a division spawned four management styles: isolated (low concentration on people and low concentration on aims), friendly (high concentration on people and low concentration on aims), zealous (low concentration on people and high concentration on aims), complex (high concentration on people and high concentration on aims). An isolated manager, in accordance with the test author’s interpretation, prefers written communication, thus isolating him/herself from people and going deeper into a problem. A friendly manager prefers to be in personal contact with employees, thanks to which he/she is familiarized with employees’ life. A zealous manager issues verbal orders, thanks to which he/she can dominate over others which, however, gives rise to employees’ resistance. A complex manager chooses to adopt the form of group meetings where decisions are taken and solutions suggested together.

Figure 3. Distribution of the results of management styles in the analyzed sample (n=387)

Source: own elaboration.

One might assume that in family businesses, due to family bonds, the dominating style will be the friendly and complex ones. The research done, however, reveals a different structure of management styles in the analyzed
sample. The most frequent management style among the subjects is the complex style which was identified to be followed by 60% of respondents. The next style is the zealous style realized by 25%, followed by the friendly style (10%) and the isolated style (5%). It turns out that the execution of tasks as the main factor of undertaking managerial activities is dominant and it is declared to be followed by 89% of respondents, whereas concentration on people's problems can be observed in 69% of respondents.

Model of introducing a change in a family business

The efficiency of introducing a change is contingent on communication in family businesses and in particular on the contents and form of information concerning innovations passed. The leader of change should use appropriate language, i.e. one which explains what the change may bring to the company, family and employees. Being familiar with the aims of change allows to engage oneself emotionally, which may lead to the acceptance or rejection of the change or innovation. Acceptance causes a change to be included in the system of values and family, which causes positive dynamism. Its consequence is the dissemination of its values and gaining support among employees from the family and outside. The acceptance of principles, norms and forms of introducing changes does not only affect the higher level of business capacity but also family and individuals. Positive consequences resulting from a change build a mechanism for finding more transformation opportunities. Thanks to the proper development of implementation mechanisms, the level of stress and frustration of individuals and family conflicts can be reduced. Negation, on the other hand, evokes hostility or indifference towards change, which brings about negative dynamism whose outcome might be dissemination of information about potential disadvantages and bad sides of innovation as well as an attempt to win over adversaries to change. Such a situation may lead to interpersonal and intergroup conflicts in the area of family and business [Kaye 1991; Friedman 1991; Więcek-Janka 2006, Kwan, Lau, Au 2011].

For the change introduction strategies to be specified, the in-depth interviews which were carried out, used typology presented by Ferens [1998] which was supplemented with the influence of family and individuals. Following expert consultations, the following were singled out:

- the offensive strategy which consists in the creation, both in a company and family, of conditions favourable for creative searching for solutions, discussing and implementing them promptly;

- the defensive strategy which consists in the analysis of internal causes (in business, family and individual aspects) of failure to deal with problems. Businesses most often choose the reduction of costs (the bell-tightening
strategy), which in turn leads to lack of innovations and in the long run to lower competitiveness;

- the strategy of purchasing a licence which consists of gaining markets through buying technological licences of other firms;

- the strategy of entering niches in the market which consists in avoiding direct market confrontation. Specializing in a given branch and the analysis of strong and weak points of competitors allow to find marketing gaps (niches) where family businesses find their place;

- the strategy of creating the market which consists in building new markets by launching new products;

- the independent strategy which consists in modernizing a product and increasing its market share;

- the strategy of acquiring specialists which consists in taking on the best experts and using their potential to create and introduce changes;

- the strategy of acquiring businesses – the company seeks to take over other firms by acquisition or merger.

The research done allowed to distinguish between three most commonly used strategies for introducing a change. They include the strategy of entering a niche declared by close to 72% of the respondents. The examples quoted included the introduction of new products and services as “the ones which do not exist in the market”, “the ones which clients seek” and “running away from competition”.

The defensive strategy, declared by 26% of the respondents, is sporadically used and most often refers to “procedural changes connected with financial settlements involving creditors and debtors”, “looking for individual changes and changes in financial possibilities”, “using family and acquaintances to introduce a change without having to bear costs”.

The offensive strategy was declared by 45% of the respondents. It is applied when changes in production are introduced by “creating new production lines”, “increasing the range of products”, “geographic and segment expansion”, “designing new products”, “modernizing the existing range of products”.

Bearing in mind the specific character of family businesses and the fact that over 90% of them are micro companies employing up to 9 people, it is important, during the process of change introduction, to pay attention to the participation of family members. It is them who may be a major barrier to changes as their main aim is to keep a high level of security in the family. It is also to be remembered that individuals may also be an obstacle to innovation. Such a situation arises when the vision of change and its effects are out
of keeping with their expectations. Cartwright [1993] proposed the strategy of introducing changes on the basis of the theory of group dynamics. It was adapted to the family character of firms and formulated in the following way:

- If family members are to be used as change participants, individuals who are supposed to benefit from change and change leaders need to feel very strong affiliation with the family and company. Such a feeling is developed through relational functions which should be secured by the family (feeling of affiliation).

- The more attractive the family is for its members (through building bonds, respect, mutual love), the greater influence it may exert on them (attractiveness of family).

- Wishing to change attitudes, values or behaviour of employees from the family and outside, it is important to remember that the greater the bond between employees and family, the greater influence a group may exert on them (through integration activities) (family integration).

- The greater prestige of a family member (owner) in the eyes of relatives and non-family employees, the greater influence it may exert on them (owner’s prestige).

- Attempts to change rules in a family business, which in the case of success would cause deviation from accepted family-business norms, meet with strong opposition (change of rules).

- Information concerning the need for a change, the plan to carry it out and its consequences must reach all family members affected by the change (communication).

- Novelty in one subsystem causes tension in others. It can be diminished only by revoking the change or by adapting the remaining parts of the system to the new situation (systemic approach).

The respondents assessed the usefulness and influence of proposals presented in the process of change introduction. As the research shows, both the feeling of affiliation and the attractiveness of the family are determining factors for the introduction of change in family businesses. Other calls include proper and transparent communication with the company and owner’s prestige. According to the respondents, these features may positively affect the introduced change. The systemic approach to introducing changes is considered to be a useful, though often neglected, aspect. Such an evaluation results from “aversion to complex procedures and formal processes”.
Changes made in family businesses are to ensure stability. It happens, however, that they are hasty, ill-conceived and introduced without acceptance from family and non-family employees. The implementation of innovations is sometimes discontinued because of new ideas, which may result in the lower level of competitiveness and profit.

It is hard to imagine firms which function without such understood development. Yet, there are branches in which changes, if introduced, pertain primarily to the personal development of individuals and family. Production processes in a company are realized according to time-honoured guidelines. The examples include potters from Kashubia, bell founders from Pogórze, stove fitters, woodcutters.

Family business owners making efforts concerning transformations whose main aim is to improve the performance of a business must focus on changing “hard elements”. They relate in particular to company engineering systems and consist in modernizing the production line and machines, purchasing a licence. Focusing on management with introducing changes was analyzed by De Massia, Chirico, Kotlar, Naldi [2014]. In their research they referred to relations between the company and the surroundings in the context of the proactivity of the company. Other research done in that area concerned, among others, technological innovations [Moss, Payne, Moore 2014], using business and family dualism in management [Allison at al. 2014].

Each introduced innovation, even one which relates to technological processes, also concerns employees. Family businesses are complicated organi-
sms. Therefore, while designing changes at the level of production, one should act with due caution particularly in the area bordering on sociological and psychological spheres. All introduced changes must take heed of the organizational culture and character of interpersonal relations in a company, which was referred to by Ponthieu and Caudill [1993]. Sometimes, however, negative consequences in the form of resistance, frustration, stress and conflicts among employees cannot be avoided. Acquaintance with various ways of introducing a change allows to minimize negative effects, particularly in interpersonal relations both in the family and between individuals at a business level.

A particular kind of personal conflicts can be observed while undergoing a generational change. It happens relatively rarely. It has, however, tremendous influence on all aspects of a family business. When a change is being implemented too hastily, it may result in the election of an inappropriate successor who will not be equal to the challenges of running a business. Succession implemented without due recognition of relations in the family and ambition plans of particular individuals may provoke major internal conflicts which could destabilize the family and company. Moreover, individuals, whose aspirations are not met, may leave the company and become involved in other independent projects or feel hurt and rejected. Table 1 features a selection of changes in a family business.

Table 1. Ways of introducing a change in a family business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possibility</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top-down</td>
<td>Introduction of change through the explanation of needs and standards in the family circle (owners and co-owners), formulation of vision and guidelines, development of methods and creation of appropriate structural conditions, continuous expansion of the scope of activities and involvement of remaining family members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centripetal</td>
<td>The changing process is focused on certain problems and concerns only selected activities which create the highest possibility of improvement. It is implemented together with family members who are closely related to the identified problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom-up</td>
<td>The creative ambiance in a family business may facilitate the appearance of innovative atmosphere in which family members, family and non-family employees come up with improvement suggestions which, having been discussed, may be implemented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step-by-step</td>
<td>A new idea becomes adopted in a limited scope in one of the areas of business operation. Discussions carried out show an impact that a change might have on business and a family activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own elaboration.

Introducing new solutions, often not popular and sometimes risky, is coupled with activities which are subject to critical evaluation. Hence, it is
important to create conditions for seeking innovation within the family business. A young person – the future successor in the family business – during acquiring knowledge and skills should use his/her ideas as a set of improvements in the family and business.

A workplace is a particularly important setting for a creative individual. Family business owners should incorporate the idea of their own creativity in the mission and vision of their companies. Thanks to that, they will be able to construct conditions for creative development of children, which in turn will make the business more innovative and competitive in the market. It is fostered by the proper climate of creative thinking. Micro and small family businesses wishing to remain (or to become) creative do not need to make use of costly business solutions such as consulting, synectics or licence purchase. It is enough to work on the development of favourable conditions for internal creativity which include the following:

- business aims set by the business sphere must become a challenge for family and non-family individuals and the development or survival of the family business must become their internal aim;
- family and non-family employees must be ensured the feeling of freedom and lack of constraints;
- their ideas should be supported not only by owners (parents, uncles, aunts) but also by colleagues;
- no one should fear being ridiculed. It enhances greater activity when suggesting new solutions;
- discussions should be carried out in a friendly atmosphere. It can take place sitting at a family table, during trips taken together, without stiff rules and without fear that somebody might lose their position;
- moderate risk should be tolerated and postponed benefits of creative thinking without pressure on feedback results accepted.

Introducing good practices, unfortunately, does not guarantee the absence of complications. The biggest problems connected with the implementation of new ideas include interpersonal conflicts (in the first or second generation of a family business) and intergroup conflicts (the third and consecutive generations when ownership is dispersed and fight for influence develops). Certain obstacles which crop up on the way to innovation stem from specific inertia which characterizes family businesses and conservatism connected with unwillingness to take up risk. The analyzed businesses also pointed to problems of insufficient resources (75%), primarily financial resources (86%) (lack of qualifications in family members employed in the company was also mentioned – 55%).

Introducing changes in a planned way without unnecessary risk and urgency tends to be more readily accepted by family and non-family employ-
ees and the remaining family members where there are capital-based relations between the said parties. Even the most appropriate and necessary changes may not bring about expected results if some stages in their introduction are to be omitted or inadequately carried out. Owners of family businesses undergoing the process of introducing innovations often make an error of informing people directly affected by these innovations too late. The lack of efficient communication between decision-makers and employees, especially from the family, causes disinformation and the emergence of gossip. All of this entails uncertainty, fear, frustration, stress, anger and resistance against change which is being implemented [Więcek-Janka 2006]. As a result of thoughtless and unplanned activity, the implementation of changes may lead to hidden conflict, felt or open (which will be elaborated on in the next chapter).

Each change requires members of an organization to engage their skills, mobilize their powers and sacrifice additional time for adaptation. For many owners of family businesses change may be the only way to strengthening a business. For all individuals involved in business activity, changes are a professional challenge which may influence the direction of their career path and boost their opportunity for development. However, family members may also perceive change as being unnecessary because it disturbs the state of equilibrium and introduces turmoil and uncertainty. The acceptance of changes should be gained in all areas of business operation in an optimal way. The task of owners and business leaders is to introduce innovations in an efficient way. The whole process, however, depends on the degree of commitment shown both by family members and other employees, which requires an in-depth analysis of internal relations in the company.

Relations and communication in a family business

Internal relations in a family business most often comprise informal communication between individuals in the family and can be referred to as personal agreements. Strebel [1998] treats them as obligations which define mutual relations in a system. He also claims that each organized change transforms conditions shaped before both in a formal and informal way [cf. Terełak 2001, p. 87].

Contacts in family-owned businesses operate in three dimensions: formal, psychological and social. The formal contact refers to contacts in the company’s subsystem where family members contact each other at the level of employer – employee. It is defined as a set of fundamental requirements from an employee which are contained in the work contract, regulations and description of duties. The psychological dimension refers to contacts which are not defined and they relate to areas connected with the development in the family subsystem of mutual trust, respect and loyalty towards busi-
ness decisions. In this dimension, the owner or the leader of a change should take advantage of informal interpersonal relations and, through motivation, augment the effects of the change introduced. The social dimension is the result of the evaluation of cultural aspects in a family business relating to norms, values and outlooks of the family and individuals. When adopted in a company, they impact the evaluation of owners or change leaders in respect of the effectiveness of introducing changes and their compliance with the adopted culture. The adaptation of change is related to its acceptance by all family members engaged in the business. However, it is owners and (or) managers who hold the most important authority arising from ownership, power and charisma. Such people are expected to be committed, creative, able to manage in an inspiring way and to build atmosphere favourable for a change to be introduced. According to Rogers [1962] and Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (2001) the most highly rated types of managers, as regards the introduction of change, are visionaries and reformers. Visionaries are described as being full of ideas and it is estimated that close to 70% of ideas intended to make a business successful come from them. Reformers, on the other hand, take a realistic view of reality. They can think creatively and look for ideas that will bring changes. It is estimated that around 27% of new ideas are implemented on their initiative.

Summary

The fact that the need for change is universally understood, does not mean that family members and employees accept it automatically. Such behaviour results from a disturbed sense of security and psychological defense mechanisms. The announcement of change spells for family members and other employees the emergence of a number of uncertainties connected with their future. It is hard to predict which behavioural patterns will be rewarded and which will be penalized, what changes will be observed in the distribution of responsibilities and what the “balance of power” will look like in the business realm. The inability to adjust, to fulfil new requirements and the possibility of losing power, position or authority are only a few sources of anxiety which lead to the lack of acceptance of change in a company. In order to break these barriers, it is important to plan changes together with the family. It is essential to involve family members in the process of creating the image of a company in a new context and engage them in determining the scope of duties and responsibilities.

The acceptance of change by individuals engaged in the activity of family businesses does not guarantee their positive behaviour at the implementation stage. Such resistance might be brought about by the lack of appropriate skills and knowledge. Activity may be ineffective due to a selection of
wrong measures and resources which may include people, know-how, financial means or time [Więcek-Janka 2006a]. Another reason might be organizational inertia caused by the rigidity of procedures, information and communication channels. In order to overcome the barrier to act, it is important to make sure employees’ qualifications are constantly improved. Changes and reluctance to undergo them seem to be natural and inevitable. Each situation, where reality is not keeping in with expectations, begins resistance, particularly in risky situations connected with running a business. The ability to identify the sources of resistance and recognize opposition signals allows to control negative emotions and prevent from a conflict arising.

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The Role of Innovation in Preventing Economic Failure of Small Businesses

Introduction

The phenomenon of economic failure is analyzed in the literature from different points of view, in terms of indicators that distinguish companies at risk of bankruptcy from successful companies, as well as statistical models for the prediction of business failure and the analysis of the causes and paths leading to failure. According to the authors, the analysis of the causes and the paths leading to economic failure may allow the understanding of root causes of the crisis in the company and the sequence of events leading to this failure, providing a basis for creating tools for early warning against economic failure. Despite the fact that bankruptcy can occur suddenly (due to a competitor’s business failure, natural disasters, etc.), in most cases it is a long, gradual process of deepening crisis within the company which, while not noticed and counteracted in time, can lead to the collapse of the given company. Such an approach implies the ability to identify the phenomenon of economic failure in companies, based on successive and cause-related specific changes. This, in turn, allows the construction of a dynamic model of distinctive phases which companies go through on the road to business failure, taking into account factors that determine this process [Sharma and Mahajan 1980, Sutton 1987, Hambrick and D’Aveni 1988, Koksal and Arditi 2004, Sheppard and Chowdry 2005, Crutzen and Van Caillie 2007, Argenti 1976, Richardson, Nwankwo, Richardson, 1994, Sharma, Mahajan 1980, Ooghe, Prijcker, 2006].
Main components of paths leading to economic failure

As indicated by the authors dealing with issues of economic failures and ways of their prevention, the sequence of events leading to failure has its source in certain root causes, primary factors, which generally do not occur singly, but in a certain configuration of phenomena occurring in organizations as a result of available resources and capabilities determining the competitive position of the company. The occurrence of root causes in the organization often remains unnoticed by managers. This leads to the occurrence of subsequent events and emergence of secondary issues, seen as a broad spectrum of phenomena, often mistakenly considered by management to be the main source of economic failure [compare: Ropęga 2013].

In practice, if the entrepreneur considers the given event (events) as the root cause, while this event is only a secondary cause, then it will not be possible to carry out activities aimed at countering economic failure of the company. Implemented corrective actions may not improve the company’s position. The reverse situation may also occur, when wrong corrective actions are taken and additional deterioration of the company’s existing condition is observed, particularly when these measures are associated with additional costs. The emerging groups of symptoms, which depict only the deteriorating state of business processes occurring within the company and the relationship between the company and its environment, pose a risk of improper interpretation of these signals as the reasons why the company has found itself on a trajectory of failure. The next major step on the path of business failure is a deepening crisis situation in the company, which is a real manifestation of its deteriorating financial condition. Understanding the possibility of the occurrence of this situation and its progress allows small business owners to predict difficulties that they will encounter during this phase of their business operations. The most noticeable during this period are financial symptoms that reflect both quality of the relationship with the environment (worse financial conditions in collaboration with business partners, difficulty in obtaining loans, etc.), as well as quality of relations with employees (timeliness and level of payments of base salary and bonuses, social security contributions, etc.). The level of the crisis (its phase) determines the possibility of introducing profound changes in the company aimed at halting the deteriorating situation, implementation of new strategies, often making a settlement with creditors associated with the introduction of reorganization process controlled by regulators.

The road leading to economic failure does not proceed uniformly in every company. There are different reasons for entering the path leading towards the company’s collapse, different ways the process itself runs its course, as well as different forms of recovery. Despite the existence of various descrip-
tions of trajectories of economic failures, small business owners expect answers regarding specific corrective actions that they could use in their particular cases. Is it possible? According to the authors, it should be noted that in most cases it is possible to limit components of business failure paths by adopting measures based on the strategy reducing the risk of business failure of small businesses. Therefore, it is not essential to create an infinite number of variations regarding the behavior of entrepreneurs in a specific situation, instead, a strategy reducing the risk of failure of small businesses should be adopted and implemented.

Strategies reducing the risk of economic failure of small businesses

A multifaceted analysis of the condition of the company is important from the point of view of the perspective of strategic decisions concerning further business operations, as well as the possibility of accurate location of these activities on the particular trajectory of failure. An analysis of causes of failure is a prerequisite for taking an effective corrective action. As emphasized by S. Slatter and D. Lovett [2001, p. 17], at a time when the company is heading towards its collapse, in order to save the company, the most important goal should be to quickly determine the causes of the business failure in order to be able to tackle the root of the problem. Burns expresses a similar opinion: „Most failure prediction models are based on financial variables and as such they look only at symptoms of failure rather than underlying causes and give only a limited insight into the process of failure” [Burns, 1989, p. 53]. The strategic analysis is an approach to the diagnosis of the causes of failure that uses a multidimensional assessment of the company’s activities. As stressed by A. Zelek [2003a], although there are no methods of diagnosing a crisis in the theory and practice of strategic management, in order to identify the risks, the company can use many standard techniques of strategic analysis.

R.D. Boyle and H. B. Desai [1991] are some of the authors who have proposed a strategy for limiting the risk of economic failure from the perspective of a small company. According to these authors, the choice regarding the recovery strategy depends on the type of factors that cause this particular failure. These causes are grouped according to the following criteria: (i) internal and external, (ii) under the control of business owners and outside their control, (iii) operational (short-term) or strategic (long-term), (iv) divided according to the management area (finance, marketing, human resources).

The following table shows the four-field matrix of economic failure causes taking into account the above-mentioned perspectives and types of actions taken to prevent failure.
### Table 1. The four-field matrix of economic failure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environment</th>
<th>Internal. Under the owner’s control.</th>
<th>External. Outside the owner’s control.</th>
<th>Administrative (systems and procedures)</th>
<th>Strategic (long-term planning)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I Causes influencing short-term effectiveness, e.g.: lack of delegation of powers, lack of financial control and financial management, lagging behind rapid growth, the difficulty on the part of the owner of reconciling the planning and administrative functions</td>
<td>III Causes associated with random events, e.g.: an illness or death of the owner, natural disasters, loss of key employees, damage caused by a product/service</td>
<td>Administrative (systems and procedures)</td>
<td>Strategic (long-term planning)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actions taken: Introduction of policies, procedures and systems to improve control and management</td>
<td>Actions taken: Risk management Streamlining processes</td>
<td>Administrative (systems and procedures)</td>
<td>Strategic (long-term planning)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II Causes related to implementation of strategic plans, e.g.: lack of strategic planning, ignoring information coming from the market, inefficient management of human resources</td>
<td>IV Causes affecting competitiveness, e.g.: recession in the economy or industry, market reduction, changing socio-economic trends, globalization</td>
<td>Administrative (systems and procedures)</td>
<td>Strategic (long-term planning)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actions taken: Market analysis Strategic planning</td>
<td>Actions taken: Strategies for diversification, market niche, market penetration, market or product development</td>
<td>Administrative (systems and procedures)</td>
<td>Strategic (long-term planning)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The above-mentioned types of responses based on long-term planning should not be seen in terms of strategy in the strict sense. The risk reduction strategy applies to all the fields, from I to IV. The choice of the mentioned variants by the entrepreneur is the result of actions that begin with a strategic analysis along with strategic planning and end with specific decisions. In the response based on this strategy, one needs to take into account the categories of risks described in this chapter (in particular the ones presented in fields III and IV), identify the causes of company’s entry onto the path of failure, internal and external ones, and base corrective actions on this identification. It is also important to identify and use for corrective action war-
ning signals coming from the non-financial area. The last step prior to the entrepreneur’s response encompassing a specific group of measures to leave the path of failure is the assessment of financial warning signals. It is worth noting that, thanks to its strategic orientation, the company identifies both the causes and even weak signals much earlier. Additionally, this allows more options concerning the range of corrective measures. Changes in the environment and their trends observed on a current basis should especially lead to decisions regarding field II and IV. In special cases, the impact on field IV should be preceded by impact on field I.

Another author who has proposed the strategic orientation in the context of reducing the risk of economic failure is M. Pretorius [2008a], who states that the classic strategies proposed by M.E. Porter do not work in situations requiring improvement of business operations and renewal, resulting from the deterioration of the company’s condition. He has suggested that the strategy should be tailored to the deteriorating situation of the company, taking into account the conditions determining strategic decisions, i.e. the source that causes the deteriorating situation and the level of existing and available resources. According to M. Pretorius, the causes of deterioration in the company’s condition may be operational (related to internal problems) or strategic (connected with the environment and the company’s market position) - in this case the use of the word “strategy” does not mean a long time horizon, but mainly the orientation towards the impact of the environment. In the assessment of the availability of resources, one should focus on their feasibility and applicability. It is also (as in the case of an accurate diagnosis of the causes and their sources) an area very difficult to self-assess. The entrepreneur must first pay attention to the reliability of the collected information. If the information is collected and quantified, one can, depending on the available resources and the nature of the causes of deterioration of the company’s condition, locate the company in one of the quadrants of the matrix and match the appropriate action strategy. The course of strategic analysis conducted prior to taking any actions within a framework of a specific strategy is based on similar assumptions as the ones contained in the above-described strategy proposed by R.D. Boyle and H.B. Desai.

W. Weitzel and E. Johnsson [1989] indicate the possibility of taking an appropriate action depending on the stage the organization is at on the road to business failure.

To prevent blindness, managers should assume that there are risks for the company and they should be identified. In order to efficiently identify threats in the organization, the monitoring and control system which collects data from both the inside of the company and its environment should be improved.
During the inactive phase, the organization needs stimulating activities, development of problem-solving techniques, application of techniques for improving the effectiveness of communication and decision making. Managers should focus not only on solving current problems but also on long-term issues.

Figure 1. The increasing gap between the results of conducted activities and possibilities of corrective actions


According to W. Weitzel and E. Johnsson, the phase of faulty action is the right time for major changes in the organization, as a difficult situation forces people to take corrective actions, reorient and change strategies to ensure the survival of their businesses.

When the company is in the crisis phase due to failed attempts to deal with problems, it needs to go through a thorough reorganization and renewal of all areas of its activity, preferably with the assistance of external experts. The lack of adequate resources and mechanisms to implement changes may pose a limitation on the practical use of assistance from experts.

These considerations confirm the possibility of choosing an appropriate strategy of reducing the risk of economic failure in the case of small businesses. A key limitation is reliable access to information and how it is interpreted by the entrepreneurs. Hence, a small business needs a strategic orientation focused on a constant and reliable strategic analysis aimed at innova-
tiveness and innovations. They may be a way to both replace the previously existing resources and create the basis for the introduction of a new business model.

It may be also assumed that the actions leading to the renewal of the company and leaving the road that leads to failure become, as the difficult situation deepens, more and more complex, requiring a response in many areas of the organization and conducting activities under increasing pressure, while at the same time the choice of variants of behavior is reduced due to dwindling resources. Especially the phase of deepening crisis is hard for small businesses when liquidity problems and difficult access to additional sources of funding can paralyze actions leading to the renewal of the company. Therefore, it is important to develop and implement strategies based on innovative solutions that lead away from the path of economic failure. They will allow a small business to carry out reactivating actions during the crisis [Wawrzyniak 1999], as well as actions stabilizing the crisis [Zelek 2008] in a short-term perspective. As a result, the company will survive this period and prepare a new business model of the so called strategic regeneration in the long term [Zelek 2008].

Among the activities undertaken in order to stabilize the crisis in a small company, the area of cash management and cost reduction should be highlighted [Wawrzyniak 1999, Slatter, Lovett 2001, Zelek 2008]. In the first case, the following elements can be distinguished: negotiating extension of deadlines of payments, reduction of inventory, accounts receivable control, shortening payment terms, discounts for customers who pay before the deadline, cash payments or prepayments, attempts to obtain a working capital loan, negotiations to postpone repayment of a loan. In the other case, the following areas can be focused on: employment downsizing, wage reduction, negotiating lower prices with suppliers, reduction of overheads to minimum, use of outsourcing in areas where such services are cheaper than those provided within the company, halting investments.

Creation and implementation of a comprehensive strategy for the company to leave the path of business failure requires the simultaneous adoption and implementation of the strategy to reduce the risk of failure of small businesses. The diagnosis of phase and type of economic failure trajectory where a small company potentially is at the given time determines the actions based on this strategy. If the strategy is to be effective, it is necessary to implement solutions based on innovativeness as well as product, process, organizational and marketing innovations.

Innovations in the strategy of reducing economic failures

The research was conducted in 2011–2012 on a sample of 590 small and medium-sized enterprises created before 31st December 2007 in the private
sector. The sampling frame was the national official register of business entities (REGON), run by the Central Statistical Office. The so-called legal unit (corresponding approximately to a company with all its branches) was adopted as the sampling unit (the statistical unit in the study).

The study was quantitative in nature and was carried out by means of a questionnaire sent by mail and e-mail. Due to the low return on questionnaires sent, it was supplemented by the direct interview survey.

Micro-companies dominated in the study (55.8%), while small companies amounted to 26.8% and medium-sized companies to (17.4%). Most of the surveyed companies were involved in trade and services (approx. 70%), and only less than 30% in manufacturing. The main area of activity was the regional, local and national market, only one in ten companies expanded its business to the international market. Mainly manufacturing enterprises operated in foreign markets [compare: Lisowska 2013].

The first area of research was the analysis of the development dynamics of the studied enterprises, and for this purpose, they were divided into three categories, companies in the growth phase, in the stagnation phase and the crisis phase, depending on changes in indicators expressed on an ordinal scale in years: 2009 vs. 2008, 2010 vs. 2009 and 2011 vs. 2010. The first stage involved the selection of indicators, then the k-means cluster analysis was used for the classification of the analyzed enterprises. The cluster method used provided such clustering of the enterprises that members of a given cluster were characterized by maximum similarity, while similarity between members of the given group and other objects was minimal. In the classifica-

15 Development dynamics is defined as the change in individual indicators in the periods studied.
17 In a crisis, decision-making conditions are limited by: the occurrence of permanent disruption of the way the organization functions, the actual or apparent loss of control over the activities of the organization, the disturbed internal balance of the organization, its financial condition, the threat to the strategic objectives of the organization, as well as the destruction of the base of public confidence and inner belief in the organization [Zelek 2003a, p. 40]. At the same time, such factors as short-time of decision-making, a limited degree of predictability and concerns arising from uncertainty further impede decision-making during a crisis [compare: Wawrzyniak 1984, Urbanowska-Sojkin 2003].
19 Due to the fact that the aim of the analysis was to specifically distinguish three clusters of enterprises: the ones in the growth phase, the slowdown/stagnation phase and the crisis phase, agglomeration methods were not used – the analysis was conducted with the aid of k-means method.
tion procedure, first quantification of selected features, in the form of continuous variables, expressed however on an ordinal scale, was made. Quantification was based on assigning the analyzed characteristics specific numerical values. As a result of preliminary analyses, the questionnaire enabled the expression of the state of the phenomenon on the 1–3 scale [compare: Lisowska 2013].

The following indicators were adopted as diagnostic features: turnover, employment, market share and profit levels. The level of change of the given indicator in the analyzed periods was assessed by the respondents with the use of the following categories: growth, no change and decline. These marked degrees were assigned consecutive natural numbers: 3 – growth, 2 – no change, and 1 – a decline of the phenomenon. Application of this method allowed to distinguish three categories of companies: in the phase of growth, stagnation and crisis.

Part of the study which refers only to the category of micro and small companies, considered collectively as small businesses, in the phase of decline will be presented further on in the paper. 124 companies in the sample met this criterion.

The aim of the considerations is to assess the role of introduced innovations in reducing the risk of economic failure of a small business. To achieve this goal, the analysis of the propensity of these firms to innovate was carried out. The conducted study indicates that only 20.2% of the small businesses in the crisis phase introduced innovations in the years 2009-2011. The reasons for this state of affairs should be seen in a number of factors that can be characterized as barriers, which are discussed further below.

Product and process innovations were the most often introduced, while marketing ones were the least frequently implemented (compare: Fig. 2). This is a common trend confirmed by many studies, discussed in the extensive literature on this subject [compare, for example: Stawasz 2011, Jonasz, Kozioł 2007]. The introduced types of innovation were characterized by a low degree of novelty mainly at the company level, rarely at the level of the local and national market. None of the companies surveyed could boast the introduction of an innovation at the international level.

20 In the situation when a variable expresses a continuous phenomenon, as is the case with the proposed diagnostic features, and the measurement is made on a weaker - ordinal - scale, the use of traditional methods of multivariate statistics, including the cluster analysis, is typically acceptable (compare: S.M. Kot, T. Słaby, J. Perek-Białas, presentations during the „Quality of Life and Sustainable Development” conference at the University of Economics in Wrocław, Wrocław 2012).

21 The definition of innovation in accordance with OSLO MANUAL.
The small businesses in the crisis phase indicated the following reasons as the main ones for introducing innovation: the expected development of the company (21.7% of the responses), competitive pressure (15.7% of the responses), increasing the competitiveness of the company (15.7% of responses) and the desire to increase profits (13.8% of the responses) (compare: Fig.3). Such a distribution of responses may suggest that the decision to introduce innovations could result from the subjective assessment of the entrepreneurs concerning the deteriorating situation of their company and their belief that the innovations introduced in those enterprises would help them to survive that difficult period and, as already mentioned, would lead to the preparation of a new business model that would allow the company to leave the path of business failure.

*The respondents could choose three responses in order of importance on the scale 1–3, i.e.: 1 – important, 2 – very important, 3 – most important.

Source: the authors’ compilation.
Insufficient funds and often lack of the ability to obtain external financing are limitations in implementation of innovation in the case of companies in the crisis phase. The respondents in the surveyed companies indicated the most frequently used sources of financing for innovation: equity (43.6% of the responses), bank loans (23.8% of the responses) and leasing (15.5% of the responses) (compare: Fig. 4). These results suggest that the entrepreneurs made use of traditional funding sources, typical for small business, that are not always, especially in the case of external funds, available to companies in the crisis phase. Acquisition of European funds, due to a low level of innovation and a low degree of novelty of innovations introduced in these enterprises, as well as inadequate resources, not only financial, constitute a major problem in financing of innovation in the phase of the crisis. This may lead to the situation when only a small number of companies will meet the criteria for obtaining funds from the EU. Limited access to these resources can undoubtedly negatively affect introduction of innovative activity by small businesses in the future, especially in the case of the companies that are in the crisis phase.

*The respondents could choose three responses in order of importance on the scale 1–3, i.e.: 1 – important, 2 –very important, 3 – most important.

Source: the authors' compilation.

The owners of the small businesses in the crisis phase that did not declare implementation of any innovations in the years 2009–2011 indicated barriers for their introduction (99 companies). The respondents most frequently pointed to the following barriers: high costs of preparing and implementing innovations (21.4% of the responses), too much risk associated with implementation of innovation (15.9% of the responses) and the lack of suitably qualified personnel (13.4% of the responses) (compare: Fig. 5). Such a distribution of responses may indicate not only a lack of inclination of these com-
companies to introduce changes, but also their inability to make these changes due to their limited resources, especially financial ones. Reducing these barriers is particularly important for small businesses in the crisis phase, as introduction of innovations may lead to the renewal of the enterprise and leaving the trajectory of economic failure.

**Figure 5. Barriers to implementing innovations***

*The respondents could choose three responses in order of importance on the scale 1–3, i.e.: 1 – important, 2 –very important, 3 – most important.

Source: the authors’ compilation.

**Summary**

Based on literature studies and the obtained research results, the following conclusions, concerning the reduction of the risk of economic failure of small businesses in the crisis phase, have been formulated:

7. There is a need for a strategy reducing the risk of economic failure of small businesses in the crisis phase, a strategy which will allow these companies to quickly leave the path of business failure.

8. Good knowledge of symptoms to determine the situation existing in a small company enables the identification of the phase and type of trajectory of economic failure on which the given company potentially is and the appropriate response to the situation.

9. If the strategy to reduce the risk of economic failure is to be effective, it needs to implement solutions based on innovations which will allow these companies to quickly leave the path to economic failure.

10. The surveyed small businesses in the crisis phase indicated as a reason for introduction of innovations the expected growth of the company, which should be the result of innovations in the area of increasing competitiveness and the response to competitive pressure.
11. There is a need to reduce barriers to introduction of innovation in a small company in the crisis phase, particularly in the area of financial resources.
12. It is necessary for business environment institutions to provide the support, dedicated to small businesses in the crisis phase, which will help reduce the risk of economic failure.

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Organizational Change and Processual Approach: Some Epistemological Considerations

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Theoretical approach

The concept of organizational change viewed from the processual perspective focuses on an analysis of partial elements of the management process, i.e. routines, everyday activities and actions, which change the company’s previous way of functioning and its management. Such changes are often perceived as intuitive, spontaneous and loosely evolving in the context of social interactions and the institutionalization processes of changes, as well as their further evolution. The processual approach is developed in management within several cognitive currents. In this respect, the following research directions can be distinguished:

1. Strategy as Practice Research, which undertakes the issue of strategic management and is developed in the studies of such researchers as Jarzabkowski [2005]; Johnson, Langley, Melin and Whittington [2007],

2. The interpretative current in management and ethnographic research developed in the spirit of the sensemaking concept according to Weick [1995],

3. Microprocessual tradition and studies exploring the concept of organizational routines [Feldman, Pentland 2003],

4. Structurational studies of technology and organizations [Orlikowski 1995].

This specific practice turn in management theory is inspired by numero-
us cognitive traditions in economic and social sciences. The most important of them include:

1. The structuration theory of Giddens [1984], exploring the context of practice and everyday actions in social change;
2. The theory of evolutionary change in economics by Nelson and Winter [1982], and the concept of change in organizational routines;
3. Situated learning tradition, related to the notion of tacit knowledge and knowledge sharing among organizational participants;
4. Institutional approach and the context of institutional change.

The boundaries between the listed research currents in the processual tradition are fluid. Within each of the cognitive and theoretical currents, the emphasis of research changes and, depending on the research problem undertaken, it can be developed differently, referring to and drawing on different concepts and notions characteristic of the processual approach. For example, Johnson et al. [2007] locate the processual current of strategic management (Strategy as Practice Research) at the intersection of four theoretical approaches in management: situated learning approach, sensemaking and routines (assuming that both share Carnegian thesis on bounded rationality), actor-network theory and the neo-institutional approach [Johnson et.al. 2007, p. 37]. Johnson et al. map these theories referring to the discourse concerning macro- and micro-processual perspective on organizational problems, which became the reason for the popularization of the processual approach in management by authors within the Special Issue of Journal of Management Studies [Johnson et.al 2003]. The context of the clash of macro- and micro-processual approaches to organizational problems and management is illustrated by authors on two axes. The vertical axis represents tension between micro- and macro-processual phenomena – exclusive concern for day-to-actions in routinely recreated processes or a definitely broader perspective on management problems. The first approach is focused on the ‘how’ issues in managerial strategy, while the second one predominantly concerns the ‘what’ research questions. Similarly, the horizontal axis represents ‘process and content’ tension in the management discourse [Johnson 2007, pp. 36–38].

In search for epistemological position

The processual approach to the management issues clearly gives importance to the notion of activity and routine. The very micro-track of social life is at the core of Giddens’s structuration theory [1984] that provides some milestone thesis to the processual perspective. The Giddensian ‘practice’ consists of certain shared schemas that code legitimacy, authority, tools and procedures, pace of organizing and implementing strategy, and the understanding of
organizational values. Reproduced schemas in daily routines empower ongoing practice. They become institutionalized within the organizational field. It may be assumed that the challenge for research is to answer the question of how these micro-processes empower ongoing practice on a daily basis. Another crucial question is how people change these institutionalized schemas of action. There is a plethora of academic research work providing some answers to these questions. Nevertheless, each answer tackles the given problem from a different angle. Jarzabkowski explores these questions from the strategic perspective [2005]. Orlikowski shows the importance of technological change in this context [2010]. Tsoukas’s work concerns the problem of intentionality [2010]. Molloy and Whittington imply the significance of project management in the processual discourse [2005]. Most of these studies represent qualitative methodological track. Nevertheless, it may be assumed that qualitative and quantitative analyses can be performed to solve some micro-processual problems. First of all, quantitative studies may deliver important focal points for further analysis. Studies using large samples can be treated as predictors of areas explored within qualitative studies.

Huff et al. [2010], considering strong and weak points of ethnographic methods relating to strategizing research, call for the adoption of the model of methodological pluralism and complementary research design [2010, p. 213]. A different observation perspective may be not only substantively fruitful but also may offer an easier way to accomplish the research. Interviews, case and even longitudinal studies that are crucial to ethnography have some limitations. In this respect, Huff et al. indicate the following aspects: time limits on site and limited time of any meeting with an informant. The researcher is very often not allowed to spend more than several days in an enterprise, and it is hardly possible to have a conversation lasting more than one and a half hours. According to Huff et al., even spending several months in a given enterprise may be not enough to thoroughly explore the context of the problem [Huff et al. 2010, p. 204]. In this sense, the application of other research methods may be the crucial cognitive aspect. Using large data sets can be a way to identify or confirm the research perspective. It may also strengthen the theory searching process, making it possible to compare and generalize observation [Huff et al 2010, p. 207]. It is a kind of a triangulation process, and it may be a way to avoid research bias. By promoting mixed methods procedures in social sciences, Creswell assumes certain freedom in designing a research strategy. The process of mixing two sets of data (i.e. quantitative and qualitative data) may take place either at the stage of data collection or analysis and interpretation. Mixing may also occur at all these stages simultaneously. Creswell distinguishes three strategies of mixing data sets: a) connecting, which means conducting quantitative and qualitative research in
between data analysis of one set of data and the collection of another set of data; b) integrating, which is a way of collecting and interpreting data sets concurrently; c) embedding, which is a type of research strategy aimed at the exploration of one kind of data first (either qualitative or quantitative), after which the collection of the secondary data plays a supportive role only [Creswell 2009, pp. 207–208]. Mixed methods procedures are demanding and considerably new research strategies. Nevertheless, they offer a way of omitting some cons of one procedure and substituting them with the pros of another [Creswell 2009, p. 213]. Depending on the logic behind a research problem, a given method may play the leading role, or methodological balance may be kept between the methods applied. Creswell distinguishes several strategies of action within mixed methods procedures: 1) Sequential Explanatory Strategy, in the case of which the researcher emphasizes the quantitative approach in relation to both technical and substantive aspects. A quantitative analysis precedes qualitative research. The logic of the qualitative approach is developed based on the results of the previous analysis. The qualitative analysis supports the quantitative analysis, and it is used in order to correctly interpret the results of qualitative research, which is particularly useful in cases when the results of the quantitative analysis are unexpected and surprising; 2) Sequential Exploratory Strategy is a reverse form of the sequential explanatory strategy. Greater significance is attached to the qualitative research. It is useful in the process of generalizing conclusions arising from the qualitative research. If the qualitative research is of exploratory character, and it is aimed at the development of a theory, the quantitative approach serves as a kind of a test verifying the truth of hypotheses proposed post factum. This approach is also useful when building a tool to be used in studies using large samples; 3) Sequential Transformative Strategy is similar to the two previous strategies, with the difference that the stage of theory development, which guides the whole study, is a significant element of research; 4) Concurrent Triangulation Strategy consists in conducting qualitative and quantitative research simultaneously, and not sequentially. This strategy is based on constant comparison, confirmation, verification, and falsification of the research results. Qualitative data can be coded and transformed into data of quantitative character. Both these methods are of equal significance to the researcher; 5) Concurrent Embedded Strategy has similar assumptions to the concurrent triangulation, with the difference that greater significance is attached to one of the methods: quantitative or qualitative. The second in terms of significance method can also address quite different research questions; 6) Concurrent Transformative Strategy combines the elements of the theoretical approach within the parallel application of two different and simultaneously adapted research perspectives [Creswell 2009, pp. 211–216].
Quantitative phase of a research strategy

The quantitative stage of research was based on a survey method. The survey included small and medium enterprises from the clothing and textile industry, with their seats in the Łódź and Mazowieckie Provinces, and it was conducted in the second and the third quarters of 2013 (between April and July). The questionnaire was filled in by company owners or employees. The sample was random, and in order to increase it, a triple-frame methodology was applied, using the databases of Kompass, the Łódź branch of the Polish Textile Association, and one of the higher education institutions from the Łódź and Mazowieckie Provinces. Thus a survey was conducted on a sample of 337 small and medium enterprises. The statistical method used was the analysis of variance ANOVA [Patora-Wysocka 2014].

Statistical procedures

Based on partial measurements of activities proving the dynamism of organizational changes within the processes and routines implemented an empirical indicator was created, which was described as the dynamic indicator. The indicator measures the level of dynamic change intensity in the organization. It consists of partial measurements of different activities and processes undertaken within the internationalization process in clothing and textile enterprises. (The internationalization process was an additional research area. However, this issue is not the focal point of this analysis). In order to simplify the measurement, it was assumed that each partial measurement had an identical weight. The correctness of the synthetic indicator was verified using such measures as correlation coefficient between partial and global measurements (values above 0.3). In order to determine the occurrence of differences between the averages in different groups of enterprises, an analysis of variances was carried out.

Construction of the dynamic indicator and identification of variables that diversify the occurrence of organizational changes

The construction of the dynamic indicator was based on the assumptions of the adopted processual perspective, which focuses on the analysis of partial aspects of the enterprise's functioning. The research included companies from the clothing and textile industry, which is why partial elements of the processes related to the indicator concerned the functioning in a seasonal cycle. The fundamental areas of the enterprises' functioning are presented in Figure 1. Within these areas, detailed aspects of activities undertaken cyclically in relation to the product development process, marketing and logistics strategies implemented, investments and internationalization were determined. In the case of trend researching, these are, for example, the use of trend
forecasting services, Premiere Vision and Fashion Week fairs, and comparative shopping as part of planning processes (and spontaneity in decision-making). In the case of product development processes, these are, for example, increase/decrease of the average product production cost; increase/decrease in the number of models/colors/pieces under a given model. In the area of marketing strategy, these are, for example, price differentiation under homogeneous groups of products; increase in sales over the last two years; intensifying outdoor advertising; advertisements in glossy magazines; working with models. In terms of logistics and investments, these are: shorter delivery time; strengthening quality control and outsourced services such as packing; opening the enterprise’s own stores abroad; building distribution channels abroad.

**Figure 1. Selected partial processes in a seasonal cycle in enterprises from the clothing and textile industry**

A one-factor ANOVA for testing differences between the average values of the dependent variable (dynamic change indicator) in individual subgroups formed for the purpose of the value of the independent variable was applied. This article presents the variables for which the dynamic indicator was differentiated in a way that was statistically significant (for the F test \( p < 0.05 \)). Thus the zero hypothesis was rejected, assuming that the average values of...
the dependent variable for the categories of the independent variables did not differ in a statistically significant way.

A post-hoc procedure (Duncan test) allowed to determine which groups were significantly different and whether there were any homogenous groups without any differences. This enabled the determination of which categories of the independent variable were characterized by a greater or smaller degree of the dynamic level.

Table 1. Dynamizing variables of organizational change in a seasonal cycle (ANOVA analysis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise size:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0–9</td>
<td>10.69</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–49</td>
<td>12.83</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>138</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–250</td>
<td>16.84</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of entries of the collection in a season:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 intake</td>
<td>12.69</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2–4 intakes</td>
<td>13.98</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>132</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 + new silhouettes</td>
<td>13.68</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No collections</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial profitability as the main reason for delivering non-standard orders:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11.82</td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressing the demand of foreign customers, designs with more difficult construction are introduced:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>17.04</td>
<td>6.71</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11.93</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>255</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet sites as preferred forms of distribution:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamizing variables</td>
<td>A higher level of the change dynamizing process</td>
<td>A lower level of the change dynamizing process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise size</td>
<td>Medium enterprises</td>
<td>Micro and small enterprises</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversification of the number of entries of the collection in a season</td>
<td>There is such diversification</td>
<td>There are no entries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial profitability as the main reason for delivering non-standard orders</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressing the demand of foreign customers, decisions to change the production profile are taken, considering the introduction of designs with more difficult construction</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet sites as preferred forms of distribution</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Origin of the majority of non-standard orders</td>
<td>Abroad</td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased diversification of products into fashion and classic ones as a result of involvement in export and foreign activities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Nie</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusions

Within the quantitative methods applied, the basic aspects of factors dynamizing organizational changes in a seasonal cycle were determined. The results of the quantitative research can be further treated as predictors of areas explored within in-depth qualitative research. One can put forward a proposal of instruction for an interview, which – in accordance with the results of the quantitative research – can include aspects of the organizational structure of enterprises, the process of planning collections and work on the product development, as well as the role of internationalization in this process, motives and methods of fulfilling non-standard orders, the use of online tools in the distribution process, investments, and the application of new technologies in work on the product. The work on fashion products in a seasonal cycle is a complex production process based on making decisions of economic and creative character. It is also to a large extent based on the ability to forecast and plan. Work on a collection starts at least one season in advance. The collection structure is complex, often fluid and live, as it needs to be often changed and supplemented depending on the customers’ needs, changing trends, or even weather changes. A collection consists of product groups covering different sizes, fabric types, silhouettes and finishings, which are then differently defined by the price. This type of functioning requires the development of certain schemas of action and cognitive maps, which facilitate interactions between organizational actors. Then, such schemas evolve and change. Without this the organization would not be able to develop in such a demanding industry. Factors initiating change within cyclically reproduced practice may be hard to observe. Quantitative studies indicate that an important element dynamizing micro-changes in a seasonal cycle can be the way of responding to difficult orders, as their fulfilment may entail the necessity to use skills and resources, knowledge, interactions and human relations in an innovative way. In such changeable sectors as the fashion industry, innovativeness on the level of micro-processes may be a prerequisite for maintaining the continuity of organizational processes in a broader context of change.

The issue of organizational change from the processual perspective should attempt to answer such questions as “how”, “in what way”, “why”. The specific character of enterprises from the clothing and textile industry involves the repetitiveness of certain activities in a seasonal cycle. In this context, organizational changes take place in a continuous, evolutionary way that is difficult to grasp. Quantitative research may constitute a kind of a tool making it possible to identify the basic problems and areas worth exploring as part of in-depth qualitative research. In this area, the quantitative approach is a tool indicating quantitative distinctive actions that may presume some schemas within the routinely reproduced practice.
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Pensamiento Estratégico: una Alternativa para Gerenciar en Tiempos de Crisis en Contextos Empresariales Colombo-Venezolanos

Introducción
La presente investigación, pretendió abordar la situación que en la actualidad enfrentan las empresas de contextos colombo-venezolanos para enfrentar la crisis; la misma fue considerada desde la perspectiva que debe asumir la gerencia basándose en un proceso racional y analítico para la resolución de problemas. En este sentido, en los últimos cinco (5) años, las situaciones, políticas, económicas y culturales por la cuales atraviesan Colombia y Venezuela han despertado el interés en estudiar sobre alguna alternativa que pueda orientar la acción gerencial en el contexto empresarial por cuanto, está comprobado que un país no puede desarticular el sector empresarial del proyecto para su desarrollo económico. Para el caso específico de Colombia, donde el ingreso de productos por la frontera con Venezuela, ha representado históricamente una situación de crisis para el sector empresarial, debido a que esos productos son vendidos a precios por debajo de los estipulados por los elaborados en el país colombiano.

Tal situación, se ha convertido en el reverso de los años ochenta, cuan-
do el paso de productos de Colombia para Venezuela, represento la misma situación para el sector empresarial venezolano, cuyos productos eran menos accesibles que los traídos desde el vecino país. Todo esto, ha representado una
situación de lucha por los gobiernos de ambos países; llevándolos a tomar medidas para frenar el paso ilegal de productos por la frontera. En la actualidad, el escenario político-económico de Venezuela coloca en un nivel de ventaja el peso colombiano con relación al bolívar venezolano, desatando entonces, una desventaja para el empresario venezolano quien aunado a las políticas para la obtención de divisas, entre otras regulaciones para el sector privado se han convertido en la amenaza latente para impulsar el desarrollo del país. Sin embargo, para esta investigación el escenario del gobierno no será abordado, dado a que el interés estuvo centrado en ofrecer herramientas que permitan enfrentar la crisis y salir de ella; partiendo de la capacidad de análisis para descomponer y estructurar nuevamente de acuerdo a sus conocimientos y experiencia, tal como lo refiere el pensamiento estratégico según Ohmae [2004].

En el mismo orden de ideas, se ha observado a través de los medios de comunicación impresos de ambos países como dedican casi los 360 días del año hablando de la crisis y no dedican alguno de esos días en hablar de las alternativas que existen para lograr gestionar la crisis hasta convertirla en una oportunidad para el negocio empresarial. Si se parte del principio de la complejidad, la crisis pudiera ser percutiva de acuerdo a cada individuo y al contexto donde se desenvuelve. Llama la atención como en pleno siglo XXI, cuando aun manejando la sociedad del conocimiento, tecnologías de información y comunicación, donde el protagonismo global lo está asumiendo la academia a través de las universidades quienes son responsables de la formación de profesionales capaces de responder a la problemática que atraviesa el planeta, desde lo social, económico, político, cultural, ambiental entre otros. Pareciera en algún momento que falta un pronunciamiento de ese sector tan representativo para generar los cambios esperados por todos.

Al respecto Coles [2003] en su presentación en el Congreso Internacional de Conindustria, donde el tema de disertación fue ¿Cómo gerenciar la crisis en las empresas?, señala lo siguiente “... muchas de las empresas aquí representadas han mostrado esa capacidad de innovación y de inventiva en nuevas estrategias de mercadeo y en nuevas relaciones con sus consumidores. Si ustedes leen el último número de debates IESA de Diciembre 2002 verán que está dedicado a resaltar las mejores prácticas, las mejores experiencias que han hecho muchas empresas en el país para conocer mejor a sus consumidores, aun tan golpeados como están, esas son muestras de acción empresarial que sale a la calle, interactúa, entiende y adapta su organización y sus estrategias a lo que está a su alrededor...”. Al observar este comentario, es evidente que luego de transcurridos once (11) años el sector empresarial continua sumergido en una situación del contexto de repente aún más aguda para algunas de estas empresas.
En otro orden de ideas, Astudillos [2012] señala en su artículo, sobre la crisis empresarial, donde a su criterio juega un papel determinante la falta de información confiable y oportuna; tal percepción sobre el quehacer de la contabilidad no era del todo gratuita. El ejercicio de algunos profesionales de la contaduría pública, que no utilizaban métodos y sistemas ágiles de trabajo, hacía que en los momentos requeridos para la toma de una decisión el gerente no involucrara la información necesaria o esta estuviese inadecuadamente presentada, en busca de la oportunidad, o que por el contrario, en busca de la confiabilidad, los informes terminaran presentándose de manera extemporánea. En los peores escenarios, si el contador era externo, se limitaba a presentar informes pero no los discutía con la gerencia ni la apoyaba en la toma de decisiones.

De acuerdo con lo planteado por Álvaro Marín Hoyos [2002] este funcionamiento anacrónico de la contabilidad se convirtió en un círculo vicioso en el que el empresario no invertiría para esta área en tecnología, equipos, personal y procesos, por considerarla un gasto no productivo para la compañía, en tanto que el contador no contribuía al proceso de toma de decisiones, por adolecer de los recursos mínimos para el adecuado desarrollo de su labor profesional.

En el mismo orden de ideas, Agudelo (2013) reveló que Bogotá se destaca por su alta tasa de intención de emprendimiento (57,5%), mayor a la de países como Ecuador (54,3%) o Brasil (37,3%). Esta ciudad cuenta igualmente con una mayor proporción de empresarios establecidos, que alcanza el 8,1%, por encima de países como Chile (7,8%), Uruguay (5%) y México (4,7%). El informe apuntó que Bogotá cuenta con más emprendedores dispuestos a crear empresas con servicios y productos de alto impacto, y un 35,7% de los nuevos empresarios lo hace por “oportunidad”, basados en la innovación y en la identificación de un nuevo mercado. “Los emprendimientos de oportunidad son los que tienen mayor probabilidad de sobrevivir en el tiempo, de crecer y de generar más empleo y de todo lo que implica tener una empresa exitosa”. Señaló que entre las nuevas empresas el mayor crecimiento se registra en el sector de servicios. “De igual forma se encontraron empresas en comercio, telecomunicaciones, tecnologías de la información, servicios profesionales”, afirmó la directiva.

Por otro lado, se considera que el desempeño de la economía venezolana en 2013 fue lamentable, cuando ocupó en último puesto de la región en crecimiento económico con apenas un 1,2% de crecimiento del Producto Interno Bruto (PIB), la mitad de crecimiento promedio de América Latina. Tal crecimiento total arrojaría una caída del PIB por habitante del -0,3% en el año 2013. Destaca la CEPAL citado por La Patilla.com [2013] (que “Las manufacturas fueron afectadas por la falta de divisas para la importación de insumos
y la construcción se contrajo debido a la menor inversión pública y la falta de materiales. Solo la construcción de oficinas y centros comerciales aumentó, como resultado de la inversión de empresas multinacionales que hace varios años no pueden repatriar sus ganancias).

Con relación a la información señalada, queda claro al comparar los escenarios de Colombia y Venezuela que la crisis tiene su origen en el factor económico que determina el poder adquisitivo tanto de un país, una empresa y hasta un individuo cuyo propósito es satisfacer necesidades puntuales para el desarrollo en sus diferentes acepciones; los cuales en cortos, medianos o largos plazos, generan un incremento en las utilidades. De allí que, cuando se tiene la solvencia económica para adquirir las diferentes ofertas que ofrece el mercado, generamos una crisis que puede ocasionar desde la caída de un régimen, cierres parciales o definitivos de empresas y hasta desequilibrios mentales en el ser humano, trastornado su salud física y emocional.

Sobre este particular Mónica Díaz [2003], citada por Coles [2003], señala en la intervención en Conindustria, sobre las tipologías como son las crisis tipo shock, explosivas y las que nos sorprenden aun cuando se ha preparado para ellas. Sin embargo, existe una crisis mucho más peligrosa, que se refiere a la smolering crising, al referirse a aquellas que están latiendo en la superficie que echan humo pero no muestran la llama, el peligro está en la incertidumbre sobre cuándo será su explosión.

Luego de las consideraciones anteriores, surge la necesidad de analizar ¿será el pensamiento estratégico, una alternativa para gerenciar en tiempos de crisis las empresas en contextos empresariales colombo-venezolano? para lo cual, se realizó una consulta directa en el campo a varios sectores considerados podían ayudar a dar respuesta a esta interrogante; tales como el sector empresarial representado por miembros activos de Federaciones de Industriales de Colombia y Venezuela; propietarios de pequeñas y medianas empresas, catedráticos de diferentes Universidades, profesionales desempleados, profesionales empleados y personas con experiencia empírica.

Recorrido metodológico

En cuanto a la metodología utilizada se realizó un análisis sobre documentos escritos, donde a través de textos, artículos científicos, revistas, periódicos en línea se observó la percepción de la gerencia para la gestión empresarial en tiempos de crisis en ambos países, de igual forma, se acudió al campo donde se desempeñan rutinariamente los sectores seleccionados intencionalmente para el caso de esta investigación. Razón por la cual, la técnica utilizada fue la entrevista con pregunta abierta ¿Cuál es su opinión con respecto a la crisis de las empresas en la actualidad? De allí que las investigaciones analíticas según Hurtado [2006], se refieren a las que tienen como objetivo analizar un even-
to y comprenderlo en términos de sus aspectos menos evidentes, incluyendo tanto el análisis como la síntesis. En tal sentido, analizar significa desintegrar o descomponer una totalidad en todas sus partes. Síntesis significa reunir varias cosas de modo que conformen una totalidad coherente, dentro de una comprensión más amplia de la que se tenía al comienzo.

Con relación a la población estuvo representada por 10 miembros activos de las organizaciones que agrupan a los empresarios, 10 catedráticos de las universidades, 10 propietarios de pequeñas y medianas empresas, 10 profesionales y 10 no profesionales pero con experiencia en la gerencia de negocios. Para un total de 50 sujetos informantes clave.

Reflexión teórica

Para abordar la problemática del pensamiento estratégico como alternativa para asumir la gerencia en tiempos de crisis en empresas colombo-venezolanas; es necesario considerar el conocimiento y el análisis como capacidad del gerente para generar cambios que conlleven a solucionar problemas, sean estos individuales u organizacionales que orientaran con mayor certeza el logro de los objetivos finales; los cuales proyectaran a sus empresas hacia el futuro deseado. No obstante, los investigadores desarrollan su enfoque desde la perspectiva de la percepción de Pérez [2006] quien percibe la crisis, como las medidas para identificar, adquirir y planificar el uso de recursos necesarios para anticipar, prevenir y resolver una amenaza o incidente específico; cuyas características específicas son: Impredecible, caótica, información, insuficiente, en conflicto visión de túnel, enfoque en el corto plazo. En tal sentido, el pensamiento estratégico se convierte en una herramienta para determinar si estos elementos se encuentran presentes o son manejados por los gerentes en tiempos de crisis y evaluados en el presente estudio. Partiendo del supuesto que el pensamiento estratégico por ser de característica cualitativa, se puede medir de acuerdo al comportamiento racional del individuo cuando desempeña cargos donde se requiere la toma de decisiones, es de considerar que las mismas repercuten en el éxito o fracaso de la organización en un corto, mediano o largo plazo.

En este contexto, la concepción filosófica subyacente en las organizaciones que promueven la esencialidad de la razón estratégica como una unidad invariable e interactiva entre las lógicas del pensamiento, la estructura lógico-formal organizativa y el sistema relacional de ideas, pensamientos u opiniones gerenciales. Aun cuando existen quienes consideran esta etapa como la ley general de las organizaciones inteligentes, el mismo Senge [2000] estima que es un segmento del pensar estratégico dentro de procesos disciplinarios donde interviene la unidad como integradora de la verdad presente.

Al respecto, la unidad entre ser y pensamiento es una idea filosófica señalada por Fisher y Sharp [1999], al sostener que "pensar y ser son indi-
stintamente proceso de creación y construcción”, como formas de expresión personal sobre las cosas; entonces, de nada serviría conocerlas si este proceso se realiza sin una noción previa del cómo, cuándo, por qué y para qué. Sin embargo, aquello que realmente denota la unidad, dentro de esta doctrina, lo constituye el conocimiento adquirido, procesado y aprendido que el sujeto en su condición sistémica logra establecer como condición mínima del pensamiento humano.

De tal manera, según la referencia anterior se puede asumir, que “pensar es una acción pragmática en la medida que cada uno de los hombres es considerado como una individualidad distinguida por la capacidad de percibir las situaciones de su entorno; Por su parte, Morrisey y Arenas [1996] sugiere que esta forma de pensar está vinculada con la estrategia de la mente al momento de estructurar los procesos cognoscitivos, razón por la cual el autor refiere que “la posición del pensamiento estratégico depende en gran medida de la intuición y de los procesos cognitivos presentes en la unidad de análisis sistémico”, utilizados por los gerentes corporativos para percibir la organización como un todo.

En tal sentido, y según la percepción del autor citado, se instaura una conexión entre el pensamiento y la conformación del proceso estratégico, por cuanto tiende a ser una combinación de lo intuitivo y analítico como un proceso humano más que de un sistema, por tal motivo se establecen los cimientos para la toma de decisiones estratégicas, que sin este fundamento, las acciones pueden verse fragmentada e inconsciente con la salud en un largo plazo de la organización. En ese escenario, los elementos del pensamiento estratégico generarán una serie de alternativas como resultado de la rapidez como fluye la información, tanto en forma horizontal como vertical para estructurar las decisiones en función de la organización.

En ese mismo orden de ideas, han surgido planteamientos sobre la forma de planificar los gerentes corporativos, cuya deficiencia según investigaciones referidas por Steiner (1998) están relacionadas con la falta de apoyo a la planeación y un clima no acorde a la organización; en tal sentido se considera que las causas rara vez son por deficiencias técnicas de los procesos más bien obedecen a los enfoques analíticos de naturaleza humana.

En tal sentido, la presente investigación asumió como referencia conceptual de pensamiento estratégico, la citada por Ohmæe [2004], quien la considera como el análisis que el gerente debe buscar para entender claramente la particularidad de las partes y luego usando el cerebro, reestructurar esos elementos. Para luego ser comparada con otras definiciones y establecer una definición en función de los resultados del estudio. Al respecto opina Maurick [2000], el propósito del pensamiento estratégico es ayudar a explorar los desafíos futuros, tanto previsibles como imprevisibles preparándolos para un
probable mañana único. De lo señalado por el autor, se deduce la importancia del pensamiento estratégico debido al juicio razonado, el cual se realiza basado en la información adecuada, para su efectividad; por cuanto una vez tomada una decisión debe estar en función de una visión clara de lo que debe ser la administración futura de la organización. Es por ello, que la visión de la empresa se basa más en la forma de percepción de los decisores de acuerdo a su experiencia y a la manera de percibir las cosas, lo cual dependerá de los resultados del análisis sistemático realizado por los niveles gerenciales.

Reflexión final

Luego de analizar las justificaciones teóricas sobre pensamiento estratégico, asociadas directamente con el pensamiento individual y la capacidad de análisis al momento de asumir una actitud hacia la gerencia; tomando en cuenta que los autores citados coinciden que el análisis para la interpretación del escenario es la herramienta de juicio razonado luego de procesar la información adecuada, razón por la cual se puede considerar como la alternativa para enfrentar la crisis del contexto empresarial colombo-venezolano.

Se asume los postulados conceptuales de pensamiento estratégico, la citada por Ohmae [2004], quien la considera como el análisis que el gerente debe buscar para entender claramente la particularidad de las partes y luego usando el cerebro, reestructurar esos elementos, para ser comparada con otras definiciones y establecer una definición en función de los resultados del estudio. Al respecto también se consideran como propósito del pensamiento estratégico los postulados de Rick [2000], el cual establece que el pensamiento estratégico está asociado los desafíos futuros, tanto previsibles como imprevisibles preparándolos para un probable mañana único. Se acentúa la importancia del pensamiento estratégico para el análisis de la crisis en el contexto colombo venezolano, por cuanto una vez tomada una decisión cualquiera que sea en el ámbito gerencial, debe estar en función de una visión clara considerando lo intuitivo y lo cognitivo.

En cuanto a la opinión de los sectores entrevistados para Colombia, los representantes de las federaciones que agrupan los empresarios en 80% de los entrevistados manifestaron que la crisis obedece a circunstancias externas que escapan de las manos de la gerencia y que en la mayoría de las veces están asociadas directamente a las regulaciones impuestas por el gobierno sin prever las consecuencias que estas puede ocasionar para el sector empresarial y por ende para el desarrollo del país; mientras que el 20% restantes consideraron que la crisis es una situación generada por los cambios a los cuales se someten las empresas interesadas en posicionarse en mercados altamente competitivos sin estar preparados para asumirlos.

Con relaciona al sector universitario (catedráticos), el 90% considera que las crisis son el producto de las desigualdades sociales y la lucha por alcanzar
estatus en la sociedad del consumo relacionadas directamente con los factores económicos y el poder adquisitivo. El 10% restante, destaco que la crisis se origina por la limitación de quienes asumen los roles gerenciales sin estar preparados para analizar los factores internos y externos de forma correcta para la toma de decisiones, cuando esto ocurre en estas condiciones se desencadenaran crisis que pueden convertirse en el fracaso para cualquier empresa. Para el sector de propietarios de pequeñas y medianas empresas, la opinión estuvo dividida un 50% manifestó que la crisis se origina por la falta de apoyo para las Pymes por parte del Gobierno y la Banca, además del poco o casi nulo apoyo de las empresas grandes para que este sector se pueda desarrollar. En tanto, el otro 50% considero que la crisis obedece a la falta de formación técnica para el manejo de los recursos económicos de los responsables del manejo de estas empresas. En el caso de los profesionales el 100%, expresó que no son considerados por que no tienen experiencia. Y para el sector de no profesionales pero con experiencia en la gerencia de negocios, el 85% expresó que la crisis en las empresas colombianas obedece a la toma de decisiones sin conocer el negocio y querer superara a las empresas que tienen un buen rato operando en el mercado colombiano. Mientras que el 25% opino que con relación a la crisis todos son responsables empresarios, gobierno y sociedad por no estar en capacidad de convertir la crisis en una oportunidad.

En cuanto al escenario Venezolano, los representantes de las federaciones que agrupan los empresarios en un 90%, expresaron que la crisis empresarial tiene su origen en las erradas políticas del gobierno para atender este sector, prevaleciendo la exclusión en los diferentes negocios del país. El 10% restante prefieren no opinar al respecto. Para el sector universitario (Catedráticos) el 60% considero que las crisis son el resultado de la desarticulación empresa-universidad-gobierno, por cuanto esta triada garantizara la preparación de los diferentes sectores para enfrentar la crisis, por lo cual es determinante la capacidad de los responsables de la acción gerencial de conocer la información del entorno para poder realizar un análisis con el mínimo de incertidumbre antes de tomar alguna decisión. Con relación al 40%, consideran que el único responsable es el gobierno por las restricciones para la adquisición de materias primas.

Con respecto al sector de propietarios de pequeñas y medianas empresas, el 100%, opino que el único responsable de la crisis es el Gobierno, pues su interés es desapareces las empresas privadas sin importar el tamaño. Por otra parte el sector de profesionales el 100% considero que la mala praxis gerencial es la responsable de la crisis, dejan claro que no todos pueden gerenciar, se requiere de formación para desarrollar capacidades, habilidades y destrezas para visionar el futuro de las empresas y eso solo se lograra si luchamos por alcanzar calidad en la formación de los profesionales. En cuanto al sec-
tor de los no profesionales pero con experiencia en la gerencia de negocios; el 100% opino, que la crisis es producto de las improvisaciones tanto de los empresarios nuevos como del gobierno, de seguir así pueden acabar con todo un país.

En conclusión, se puede afirmar a partir de las consideraciones por parte de los sujetos que informaron, que la crisis dependerá de la percepción individual y colectiva; además de la formación académica que permita desarrollar mejores análisis e interpretar las realidades del entorno, cuando todos entienda que la crisis es la sumatoria de los problemas de todos los que forman parte de un país, en esa medida se puede trabajar para convertir la crisis en una oportunidad para todos, desde el punto de vista del negocio.

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Proposition of BOP 3.0 as an Alternative Model of Business for BOP (Base of Pyramid) Producers: Case Study in Amazonia

Introduction

The Amazon biome is considered abundant mainly because of its biodiversity and topography, climate and others unique conditions; therefore, a paradox does exist, where the forest is, apparently, abundant, at least by its biodiversity and its role in the equilibrium of the earth ecosystem, but, the population is poor, because of the lack of other resources, such as: human resources, scientific knowledge, financial, infrastructure, transport and logistics, health, etc.

To get out of this situation, a bigger participation and involvement of the local populations is necessary in the search of a better life quality and this is able to be done from the discussions about the Base of Pyramid, in this case represented by natural forest extractive profile of Amazonian producers that are analysed in this research.

The term “Base of Pyramid” was coined to designate a form of inclusive capitalism, emphasizing the role of enterprises in reducing the poverty [Prahalad; Hart 2002; Hart; London 2005; Hart 2011], i.e., the initial idea was to create the consumption opportunity (BoP 1.0) or to sell to the poor ones by distribution channels as a way of inclusive capitalism.

In the last years the business experiences with this guidance have multiplied in the world, directing to what is called BoP 2.0. Its mainly characteristics are [Hart 2006; Hammond 2011]: to create a shared fortune with BoP, by co-creations and co-inventions, deepening dialogue with the poor communities, generating shared commitment and mutual learning, combining profits with poverty. Hart [2011] proposes a creative marketing strategy or
“green jumping” stating that green technologies used on the top of the pyramid can be developed and commercialized in the BOP, i.e., focus on business model played by poor people, but, makes the convergence of clean technologies (environmental), “co-created”. However, there is criticism to this kind of BoP mainly because of the difficulties which companies (multinationals and medium-sized) will have to explore economies of scale in BoP markets, if they are not necessary basic goods and services it will not improve the situation of the BOP, profits in the BOP markets are limited and environmental non-respect in the use of packaging [Karnani 2007]. Furthermore, who makes the creation or co-creation of value is the organization, mainly, multinationals or medium-sized undertakings, better organized.

Normally, both BoP’s consumers and producers (in this case) are, mostly, in developing countries or poor countries, where people live with lack of resources [Srinivas; Sutz 2008], and it is the case of Brazil and the wide Amazon biome. Therefore, is there a theoretical gap referring to central local role, i.e., the small producers themselves, from BoP, in BoP’s approaches?

Accordingly, the main purpose of this article is to suggest and apply a new alternative business model, called BOP 3.0, in which the small producers, poor and impoverished, from BoP, are the main protagonists.

The application was done through a qualitative study of case, secondary data (documents) and primary (direct observation and semi-structured interviews with 75 manufacturers) were collected in Rondônia / Brazil, the Amazon wide biome, an organization named RECA, where the base of organization is in the family groups (approximately 360 producers), which are gathered, mainly, by neighborhood, divided into 11 groups. The content analysis and abductive logic were used.

Contributions and the results summarized are: the strategy and production and organization management is under the governance of the BoP producers (self-management); decision on the distribution of results and value created by the producers themselves; immediate appropriation by BoP producers; search and selection of stakeholders for the realization of joint projects of specific interest; collegial decision between producers; natural orientation toward sustainability considering the social, environmental and economic dimensions, including worries about qualifying, children’s education, housing, “natural” adoption of sustainable agroforestry production systems, creation of hybrid organizational structure between the cooperative and association, they can be suppliers of products and services for local, regional, national and international markets, producers are entrepreneurs actors.

Besides this introduction, this work is complemented by discussions of BoP 1.0 and 2.0, the BoP proposition 3.0, results and discussions, final considerations and references.
BASE OF PYRAMID - BOP 1.0 AND 2.0

In the 1960s, the issue “poor consumption” appeared on American literature under two approaches: (1) on one side there were those who regarded them as unable to take care of their interests as consumers and attributed to the poor an irrational buying behavior, (2) another group of researchers understood the buying behavior in response to specific factors associated with poverty and defended the rationality on taking decisions by poor consumers, in the context of emotional needs or material limitations [Hill; Stephens 1997; Williams; Windebank 2001].

These perspectives considered poor consumers excluded from the consumer society. More recently, the interest in behavior of poor consumers in the international literature, mainly increased and in this context arises the most known theoretical perspective on the “Base of the Pyramid” in the early 2000s, studies by Prahalad and Hammond [2002] with the publication of an article in the Harvard Business Review identifying profit potential among the poorest, and a work of Prahalad’s work and Hart [2002] published talking about the wealth at the Base of the Pyramid.

Since then the idea that business can play an important role in poverty reduction has been disseminated although this is not the only way they can help to combat it and reduce social inequality. By the context, the idea and the focus of the authors was to show that companies can make bigger profits serving this group “ignored” by the market.

The original work of the authors refers to an invitation to multinational companies to reach BoP markets and help to combat poverty. The initial concept, introduced, means selling to the poor helping them improve their lives through the production and distribution of goods and culturally sensitive services to poor population reality, environmentally sustainable and economically profitable [Prahalad; Hammond 2002]. It also involves many changes in positioning itself and in the actions of the organizations.

However, the impact of these ideas didn’t restrict only to businesses and academies, but also to multilateral agencies and international NGOs that have started to become interested in the operation of the companies, in order to extend their field – a traditional philanthropy, for the inclusion of the poor in their value chains. The entrepreneurial experiences have increased, as well as studies [Kolk, Rivera-Santos, Rufin 2012].

Kolk, Rivera-Santos and Rufin [2012] in the article “Reviewing a decade of research on the” Base Bottom of the Pyramid “(BoP) concept” analyzed 104 articles published on magazines and reported that not all of the BoP initiative are presented by for-profit companies, which is surprising, considering the BoP’s premise that is to combine profit with poverty reduction.
Initially the term “Base of the Pyramid” had the intention to appoint an inclusive form of capitalism, emphasizing the role of business in driving this purpose [Prahalad, Hart 2002, Hart, London 2005; Hart 2011]. In summary, the first generation of theorists draws the attention of business to the BoP markets and to interests of the poor, considering the poor as potential consumers. Moreover, these theorists highlight the possibility of combining profit strategies with social goals, as fighting poverty.

According to Prahalad and Hart [2002], the dual objective is possible by connecting the poor and the rich around the world in a transparent market organized around the concept of sustainable growth and development.

The second generation called BoP 2.0, rethinks the theory and its approach to business opportunities and benefits for poverty reduction, as well as the environmental impacts associated with this activity [London; Hart 2011].

The theorists of this generation [Hart 2006; Hart 2008; Hammond 2011] attempt to reformulate the BoP theory more focused on the human being, i.e., raises the possibility (even initial) of creating the fortune with the BoP in a shared way, from the notion of co-creation, the creation of mutual value and the creation of markets as such. They define the sequence of BoP and more heterogeneous business while considering the BoP markets as buyers, sellers and entrepreneurs, inserting a larger number of actors other than the multinationals working with partnerships in different sectors, emphasizing the importance of perspective profit of longer term [London; Hart 2011].

This second-generation BoP strategy requires an integrated process of business co-invention and co-creation that brings to the corporation closer to the community through business partnerships, moving “beyond profound dialogues” with the poor resulting in shared learning and mutual commitment.

Co-creation business strategies require a “fan” of tools for market entry. For example, for a product to be embedded or integrated into a lifestyle of BoP customers, this product or service has to make sense for their lives, so that for a BoP’s client to participate in co-creation must be realized the connotation of his value to the product and companies (mutual value) must be opened with the value proposition of a product or service.

According to the “BoP Protocol” [Simanis; Hart 2008], when talking about mutual value means that each step of the process, not just the new business creates value for all key partners. The “co” component of “co-creation”, originally performed by Hart [2008; 2011] captures the necessity for the company to work in equal partnerships with the BoP’s communities from conception (imagine), launch and grow a sustainable business. The co-develop catalyzes the business imagination and ensures a culturally appropriate and environmentally sustainable business model through the allocation of local resources and capabilities, which expands on local entrepreneurship capacity.
The logic of co-creation has the connotation of a co-generated business in a highly interactive manner. According to the “BoP Protocol”, the methodology of co-creation “break the wall” between private entities and the BoP’s communities requiring no intermediary partners such as NGOs such as mediators between businesses and poor communities. This marriage between creative corporations and communities, brings ideas into the new business model life that exceeds what a partner could imagine or create on his own [Hart 2011], i.e., to create business strategies based on BoP 2.0, creates lasting value to the community, establishing a long-term growth foundation of enterprises and innovation, which requires an entirely new strategic process and corporative capabilities.

According to Gadetti and D’Andrea [2010], this process of sense taking or incorporated innovation (co-creation) normally takes time and profit should be expected after five years, i.e., the creation of markets is a long-term investment that requires constantly research about the consumer, development research (R&D) and new business strategies.

Hammond [2011] defends two models to help expand the ventures that are “two together, bottom-up and top-down”, in his understanding, the business must be in the form of hybrid organizations. In the first one, local structures can provide local knowledge while the global component contributes financially or technologically. In the second, hybrid organizations connect commercial and non-commercial structures, being partner of both, in order to achieve a social objective, while companies can provide technical knowledge and technology. In both hybrid models, both the bottom-up as top-down can be complementary, i.e. on Hammond’s understanding [2011], for example, companies may seek both “local” and “global” partnerships within an ecosystem to handle local and global aspects of the business.

According to research Kolk, Rivera-Santos and Rufin [2012] among 104 analyzed articles were found “very few examples” in which the BoP’s population was involved as co-creators in contrast with “many examples” that multinational companies involve the poor in some role, not as mere receivers.

Hart [2011] analyzing the ten years of BoP theory, states that through experiences and crucial lessons, much has been learned and advance their studies and introduces the concept of co-creation for creative marketing or “Green Leap Strategy” stating that green technologies used at the top of the pyramid can be developed and commercialized in the BoP. In the “green jumping” strategy (focus on business model, played by the poor) leads to understand what makes the convergence between clean technologies (focus on clean technology and driven by the environment) and BoP, i.e. innovators now succeed thanks to a more sophisticated differentiated approach based on creating a fortune with the BoP, from the logic of co-creation.
Clean technologies can be tested and tried on a small scale in BoP and evolves to global level. Where it has already been tested, for example, the telecommunications industry, has proven to be successful. BoP strategies can be environmentally friendly, as well as serving as an incubator of innovation for sustainable development [Hart 2011; Prahalad 2010].

It is perceivable in this context that the second generation of BoP (BoP 2.0) progressed towards achieving an integrated process of business co-invention and co-creating that brings people closer, through partnerships with the BoP’s community; moves in addition to deeply listen to the poor, resulting in a mutually shared commitment to mutual learning. The marriage of corporations with creative communities (resources, capabilities and energy) bring new ideas for business growth and the possibility of long-term business, which requires new enterprise capabilities.

Barki [2010] in his research sought to identify the perceptions of business people working in the market, the conditions attached to a satisfactory distribution to BoP market, says the BoP market in Brazil is complex and fraught with difficulties, in as much as the consumers need an access to affordable goods. His search found recurring complaints from major manufacturers which believe that smaller manufacturers have many competitive advantages, the possibility of offering lower prices, greater distribution possibilities because they operate in a small area, and may have a strong brand image in the local region, better relationships, and ability to offer better credit conditions.

Barki’s search [2010] shows an inversion (relative to facilities) compared to what has been commonly found in the literature of BoP, which in general are the big companies to get involved with the BoP’s community, stating that in terms of execution small businesses have more flexibility, are more agile and operate in a small area, which gives them an opportunity to have a lower cost in the distribution of goods. When discussing relationships, the author states that although small manufacturers, mostly, do not use distributors, they have important links with retailers and develop very close relationships with them, and, besides, they are embedded in their community, allowing a better relationship with consumers and even building strong local brands.

Barki’s research [2010] Kolk, Rivera-Santos and Rufin’s work [2010] and the positions of Hart [2011], leads to the inference that there is an imminent necessity in propositions that leverage the situation of the BoP toward wealth.

The authors Kolk, Rivera-Santos and Rufin [2012] claim that in the articles which have been reviewed by authors from all continents (10 years published articles about BoP) no examples of BoP as a producer were found.
CRITICISM OF BOP THEORY

Oblivious to BoP discussion between BoP 1.0 and 2.0, Karnani [2007] is one of the main critical discussions about BoP and speaks of an illusion that exists and states that the BoP theory shows many fallacies.

The first criticism that he makes is about the size of the BoP market; 4 million people is largely overestimated part and varies according to the definition of poverty. According to the author the BoP is not a homogeneous market, consumers are quite heterogeneous and dispersed.

Another question that the author points out, is that in his opinion, the difficulties must be considered that the companies (multinationals and medium-sized) will have to exploit economies of scale in BoP markets. Selling to the BoP does not imply that there will be an improvement in the situation, unless the expenses are of primary necessities.

Another criticism to the BOP is on the unit price and environmental sustainability of the container used inside the BoP, which was already a Prahalad’s concern [2010].

In summary, Karnani’s arguments [2007] are that, consumption does not improve poor people’s lives in a sustainable manner unless their income increases are real. He argues that the poor must be seen primarily as producers, not as consumers, in order to alleviate poverty, with help from the private sector. He does contest the BoP’s theory completely, he emphasizes the necessity to be more cautious about the extent and role of the private sector, and how it can contribute to poverty reduction. Only the creation of real jobs and increased productivity could have a significant and sustainable impact on the increase of purchasing power of the BoP’s population.

In this research, another criticism is added, which is the underlying dependency idea of the poor, the BoP’s conception capacity by organizations, mainly multinationals and medium-sized idea, assigning a role to these poor, normally as consumers. In the end, who makes the creation or co-creation of value is the organization, mainly, multinational or medium-sized ones.

In this context it’s needed to infer that, only if the poor are able to capture a single part of its added value, they will increase their real income. The private sector in this case can help alleviate poverty, if it accepts and supports the poor as producers. From the critics and Karnani’s understanding [2007] it can be argued that rather than being “the fortune at the BoP” should be designed as the fortune WITH the BoP.

In this research, the audacity is to take a step further, because, rather than advance the idea of the changing the role of organizations, or on the behavioral and market inclusion of the poor in the BoP, the proposition is to think about the BoP from proactive posture from its own members, as BoP’s producers, including as producers of value, but, allowing for immediate and direct ownership of the results, in partnership with its stakeholders.
PROPOSITION OF BOP 3.0

The third generation of the BoP (BoP 3.0) that is being proposed in this research takes a step beyond the concepts of BoP 1.0 and BoP 2.0. So instead of focusing on advancing the idea of changing roles of organizations in the BoP’s context, being the behavioral and market inclusion of these (poor), as is the case of BoP 1.0, being the most participatory way and through the co-creation with members of the BoP, as is in BoP 2.0, it is considered the role of producers in the BoP as the central focus of the analysis.

Normally, for these BoP’s producers to act it will be necessary the constitution of organization and institutions, but this will not be the central focus and the starting point of the analysis, though, after established, these organizations or institutions will be very important for feasibility of seeking a better quality of life for them.

Therefore, the third generation of BoP considers the poor as producers entrepreneurs in the literal sense, where these are the ones who are active in seeking partnerships, for example with its stakeholders to support their decisions and actions. This support for, usually, multiple needs, occurs mainly in terms of financial, management, new sustainable production techniques, research and development of products and/or byproducts, as well as for commercialization and opening of distribution channels.

This generation of the BoP (3.0), the planning, the strategy and the management of production and organization is under the governance of the BoP producers, in a continuous process of self-management, which may comprehend from the guidelines and initial strategic choices, through the conception of product, industrial processes, market insertion and commercialization. This also involves obtaining resources (from varying natures), its management and distribution of profits to the producers of BoP by adding value to products and services obtained.

However, to be able to build and present this proposition, it is necessary to extend the framework of relations between the BoP and ToP, as well as between producers and consumers, and the distribution channels may also be included, which could be local, regional, national and international. Hardly, it would be able to talk about a global market in this case, by the own nature of the products and services that can be produced by BoP producers, as well as the inability to work on a standardized and scale, necessary for a global action. In picture 1, a set of possible relationships between the pointed shafts is presented, as it is contextualized the BoP 1.0 and Bop 2.0 (picture 1).
In this conception of BoP 3.0 (picture 1), producers imbued by the sustainability principles, which is a voluntary choice, determine what to produce, how to produce and who to produce to. The products and services have all the sustainable characteristics recommended by BoP 2.0, added the characteristics of the propose for BoP 3.0, and it can be provided even for local markets, in a small scale, until international markets, in a wide scale, and also for other organizations as for the consumer, i.e., both for the BoP and the ToP.

In this new way of production, with governance and being self-managed by the producers of BoP, the added value, for example, the appropriation of results for the producers from the BoP can be immediate and decided by themselves, using the own organizations or institutions which will be created, without the necessity of mediation by other actors or a mediator organization.

Related to the previous generations (BoP 1.0 and BoP 2.0) the main contribution is the production by BoP (table 1):
Table 1. Comparative table between BoP 1.0, BoP 2.0 and BoP 3.0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOP 1.0</th>
<th>BOP 2.0</th>
<th>BOP 3.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BoP as a consumer</td>
<td>BoP as a business partner (value co-creator)</td>
<td>BoP small producer are responsible for governance in a self-management process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep listening</td>
<td>Deep dialogue</td>
<td>Ad hoc process, joint with stakeholders proposed by BoP small producers for resources obtainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price reduction</td>
<td>Expanded imagination</td>
<td>Immediate value appropriation by BoP small producers for products and services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended distribution</td>
<td>Joint capacities, shared commitment construction</td>
<td>Shared skills and knowledge appropriated by small producers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological products and services (re-designing packaging)</td>
<td>New Sustainable technologies</td>
<td>Social Technologies oriented for sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations mediated by NGOs</td>
<td>Direct relationships, personal relationships facilitated by NGOs</td>
<td>Direct relationships with stakeholders by the BoP small producers initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural Innovation</td>
<td>Incorporated Innovation</td>
<td>Social Innovation and oriented for sustainability in a bottom-up process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: BoP 1.0 and 2.0, adapted from Hart, 2008; 2011; BoP 3.0 (proposition).

- The BoP, mainly the producers of BoP, leave the consumer and co-creator condition and become the responsible for the governance of all productive process, including marketing actions.
- Leave the passive or participative condition and starts being the “subject” in the relationship with their stakeholders, mainly, performing joint projects and according to their specific interest;
- Instead of expanded imagination BoP producers becomes appropriation of immediate value of the revenues coming from their products and services;
- The skills and knowledge are acquired through partnerships (when necessary) and shared between the producers and / or other people interested;
The adoption of sustainable production technology becomes a natural utensil, collectively articulated between association / cooperative and producers.

Instead of direct relationships, becomes to have full and absolute control over the management, the relationship between producers, stakeholders and producer-society;

Innovation becomes interactive, inclusive, social and sustainable.

Another fact that is worth noting is that, as the BoP have total and absolute control, producer and organization planning are integrated and, the organization seeks ways to improve the price and adding value for improving the production process or certifications (sustainable production) and, using the marketing techniques to insert the product level, local, regional or global.

Deficiencies due to lack of skilled labor (among producers) are supplied by partnerships with government agencies, NGOs, private sector, or contracted for this purpose.

As the producer is „the key piece” in this type of enterprise, the concerns go beyond the production process; respect to sustainability are comprehensive, and involves partnerships including to eke out qualifications necessities, children’s education, housing, so that there is a real improvement on producer’s life quality.

This new posture on BoP theory follows the critics of Karnani [2007] in as much as that way there is a real increase in income and quality of life of the producing family as well, there is a sustainable production that serves the most diverse markets.

The BoP 3.0, proposed in this research, does not fit the business models found once that that it transcends the logic of BoP’s first and second generations.

In the third generation of BoP, social and sustainable innovation comes as a natural orientation of sustainable production system for the community, based on the interests of BoP’s producers.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS 3.0 BOP

The survey data demonstrate the existence of a business, other than those recommended by Prahalad [2010] – BoP 1.0, and Hart (2008; 2011) – BoP 2.0. This is a production from the producers of the BoP based on local community household production, under the governance of the producers themselves from the soil management, cultivation, harvesting and processing, which rushes through Reca cooperative/association, which is also responsible for commercialization and apportionment of profits to producers.

According to this methodology deployed and running, the producers receive the product, as well as the profits resulting from adding value by processing.
This current model in Reca, favors a new way to “see” the BoP theory, which was once seen as a mean of trade integration of the poor (BoP 1.0), or poor as a potential market and co-creators (BoP 2.0).

From this new logic of production based on local community producers themselves BoP (BoP 3.0) producers come from a “mere poor consumers” and become producers and suppliers to the BoP and other social classes. In the study presented in this research, the products are sold to major industries that transform them into cosmetics, or even drug, and are also sold to the food industry (in smaller quantities), they do reach all levels of society.

The Reca is recognized by members and can be said by the local community, since that directly or indirectly benefits more than half the population of the city of New California as a local growth opportunity.

In the region where the associated people of Reca (Amazon) project live, these earn higher average incomes than what predominates in the state of Rondônia and higher that many Brazilian states upper middle income, whereas those producing staple foods and still have access to education and good quality of life (according to the opinions of producers).

The reports found during the survey have shown that from RECA the members now have a new way of life. There are reports that in the beginning there were some producers who didn’t see money for a long period of time because they lived by what they planted and they had no one to sell to. He had no roads to run off the production, there were much less schools and hospitals, close the properties or in nearby towns.

Today, the Reca purchases the entire production, and remunerates producers fairly (according to the majority opinion), everyone has access to education, health, means of transport itself (mostly) and houses with electricity and access to information. Those who do not own their own homes are being benefited with a specific project of construction of houses and through Reca and support of a Reca’s customer, we managed to deploy and operate (through a partnership with the Department of Education Rio Branco/AC) an appropriate school to the philosophy of the field (alternation pedagogy), where producers’ children study and remain with their families, thereby avoiding the rural exodus.

According to respondents, a good monthly income, access to health, education and information, led them to have a better quality of life without exiting or selling their properties.

According to data found in the research, in the very early begin producers realized that diversify production was a mean of survival and maintaining quality of life between the harvests. Like most PFNMs, has the crop or increased production, concentrated in a certain period of the year, the diversification came as a strategy of having financial resources throughout the year, as well as a business strategy.
A fact that worth it noting is that to diversify Reca producer, just needs to be willing to learn how to plant and cultivate. If the producer has no prior knowledge, this learning through Reca technicians or field day if you are willing to learn, you are always innovating new products and cultivating and Reca sells as many as they produce, either on demand, or by finding new markets.

At Reca is adopted the following remuneration mechanism for the activities and/or products between the Reca:

1) Upon delivery of the activity and/or product to Reca, the producer receives the view, the equivalent unit value of that item is usually a kilo or tin for products such as chestnuts. This value was determined at the meeting preceding the harvest, based on market value (generally higher than the fee required by the current market);

2) The Reca benefits and commercializes, pay all costs relating to trade and at the end of the season, makes the apportionment of surplus to producers in proportion to the production - what they call readjustment. The apportionment is done once a year (after harvest) and the adjustment is generally greater than 50% of previously received when the product is delivered, reaching the same value or even higher, as has already occurred.

Overall, the producers of Reca are satisfied with the amounts paid for their products and/or activities, even by the way of management adopted (responsible for pricing).

While searching in loco, something remarkable and perhaps one of the reasons for success in the relationship between members and the organization is the trust factor. At no time it was evidenced discredit with management, partners or even among producers, on the contrary, it is possible to witness during cupuaçu delivery by a producer that he is not worried about the control or document proving the quantity delivered and to verify if this was said “delivering safe here”. The trust element or “transparency” brings security both for the producer and for the execution team.

Final considerations

The new findings from the proposition of the new generation of BoP – BoP 3.0, leads to the conclusion that it has become a model that can be replicated, and that solves the problem of poor at the logic of capabilities [Sen 2000].

Thus, for the actual development of a place, it is not enough just to diversify economic activities and enlarge social participation as current generations of BoP (1.0 and 2.0) suggest, a fundamental requirement in this process is that it is needed the have involvement of social forces in the region at all stages of the process, based on the interests of local BoP producers.

The sustainable development project should include paradigm shifts of sustainability understanding and social responsibility, where the state is
the sustainable operator, the catalyst for local development and global agent sustainability, starting from incentives which involves the population at the Base of the Pyramid, encouraging new types of business based on local skills and knowledge, as well as sustainable production from natural resources, and to involve the Base of the Pyramid it should go beyond what was proposed by Prahalad [2005; 2010], Yunus [2010] and Hart [2008; 2011]; it should encourage the production with and from the Base of the Pyramid (BoP) for BoP and other markets, whether local, regional, national or international. So, convergence of shares between companies and other actors of the local society should be promoted.

References


Determinants of Development of the Management Processes’
Government Funding Programs for Sustainable Tourism Projects in Mexico

Introduction

Tourism is defined as the phenomenon that occurs when one or more individuals are transferred to one or more different sites of habitual residence for longer than 24 hours and less than 180 days period without participating in labor and capital markets in the visited sites (Ibanez et al. 2011). The growing tourism and recreational visit to the Áreas Naturales Protegidas (ANP, protected natural areas) is a global reality.

In Mexico, the Comisión Nacional de Áreas Naturales Protegidas (CONANP, National Commission of Natural Protected Areas) estimates that
about 5.5 million tourists visit annually federal protected areas across the country, leaving an annual economic benefit of tourism services estimated at $3,000 million Mexican pesos [CONANP 2012]. This segment of tourism in these areas should be seen as a great opportunity for the development of Mexico, as long as the activity: 1) Give significant value to the natural elements of the area, 2) Generate economic benefit to the local population, and 3) Do not modify or endanger the natural environment of the area.

The objective of this research is to analyze the main sources of government funding that exist for tourism in ANP, due to increased demand and supply activity in the country. The methodology used was research and analysis through desk work, specifically the Internet portals of each of the agencies that fund tourism in the country.

Programs and sources of financing for eco-tourism

The Secretaría de Turismo (SECTUR, Ministry of Tourism) [SECTUR 2012] mentions that to support the development of community productive projects oriented nature tourism, there have been created various funding mechanisms in order to improve levels of education and welfare of Mexicans, achieve development social and human in harmony with nature, raise and extend the country’s competitiveness and ensure inclusive development.

Table 1 shows the programs and government agencies published on the Internet portal of the SECTUR in the section on financing for sustainable projects, including eco-tourism.

**Table 1. Financing Programs by government agency**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAM</th>
<th>GOVERNMENT AGENCY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Programa de empleo temporal (PET) (Temporary employment program)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fondo de apoyo a la micro, pequeña y mediana empresa. (Fund to support micro, small and medium enterprises)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fondo nacional de apoyo para empresas en solidaridad (FONAES) (National Enterprise Support in Solidarity Fund)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: compiled from data portal of the Ministry of Tourism by the authors.
Table 1. Financing Programs by government agency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program Description</th>
<th>Government Agency</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fondo de tierras e instalación del joven emprendedor rural (Land and installation of rural young entrepreneur fund)</td>
<td>Secretaría de desarrollo agrario, territorial y urbano (SEDATU) (Ministry of agriculture, territorial and urban development)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programa de turismo alternativo en zonas indígenas (PTAZI) (Alternative tourism program in indigenous areas)</td>
<td>Comisión nacional para el desarrollo de los pueblos indígenas (CDI) (National Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programa de conservación para el desarrollo sustentable (PROCODES) (Conservation Program for Sustainable Development)</td>
<td>Comisión nacional de áreas naturales protegidas (CONANP) (National Commission of Natural Protected Areas)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programa nacional forestal (PRONAFOR) antes PROARBOL (National Forest Program before PROARBOL)</td>
<td>Comisión nacional forestal (CONAFOR) (National Forestry Commission)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financiamiento al sector turístico rural (Funding for rural tourism)</td>
<td>Financiera rural (Rural Fund)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: compiled from data portal of the Ministry of Tourism by the authors.

Financing programs Ecoturismo

Temporary Employment Program (PET) of SEMARNAT

According to published in the Diario Oficial de la Federación (DOF, Official Journal of the Federation) on February 28, 2013 (first evening section) PET specific objectives of the program are to provide temporary income support in coping with the effects of an emergency or low demand labor and implement projects that contribute to the improvement of family or community conditions that with its execution ensure income sources temporarily. Program coverage may operate nationally in municipalities with very high, high and medium marginalization and in municipalities with high job losses and in those where emergencies have negative effects on their productive activities [SEMARNAT 2012].

The PET serves sustainable tourism projects in the area of environmental conservation where each unit acts, based on the municipalities that are specified and which have a specific budget allocation with its own guidelines in order to contribute to the conservation of ecosystems and natural resources through actions of protection, conservation, restoration and sustainable use of natural resources.
Analysis of results of the program

This program has a potential population of 2,000,000 people, the same amount is the potential population that was estimated for 2012 and amounts to a preliminary number 1,512,097 for 2013, taking into account the people who seek to address in the short and medium term [CONEVAL 2012a]. In turn, the population attended effectively corresponds to 582,044 people by 2010; no data exist even for subsequent years. Over 2008 and 2009, the population attended has consistently increased (189,024 and 262,446 respectively). This value exceeds even the best coverage period 2000–2003 where the number of target population exceeded 400 thousand people. Regarding the annual budget, in 2010 they were awarded $1,223.29 million Mexican pesos (MDP), which is considerably higher (about three times) to amounts awarded in previous years ($444.1 and $456.0 MDP 2008 and 2009) and passes almost $500 MDP to the better budgeted year (2004 to $759.9 MDP). In 2011 a similar spending $1,289.23 MDP was budgeted. According to the indicators set for this program, the percentage of program beneficiaries who perceive improvement in their income over the perceived improvement in their living conditions corresponds to 79%.

Programs fund to support micro, small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in the Ministry of Economy

According to D.O.F. of February 28, 2013 (twelfth evening section) the objective of the fund to support micro, small and medium enterprise (SME Fund) is to promote innovation, competitiveness and projection in small domestic and international markets for entrepreneurs, micro, and medium enterprises to increase economic and social development and the policy of promoting culture and business productivity.

SME Fund coverage is national and its target population consists of four categories: entrepreneurs, micro, small and medium enterprises, large companies and institutions and organizations in the public and private sector acting SE programs to support entrepreneurs and SMEs.

Analysis of results of the program

This fund has inconsistencies in the definition of the potential target population, so that the comparison between years difficult. In 2010 it was estimated 5,144,056 of economic units existing in the country, considering that all companies need to improve and/or enhance their competitiveness and productivity. That same year, the target population was 200,000 units, this being surpassed by units effectively addressed number: 300,601 units [CONEVAL 2012b].
The same situation occurred in 2009, with a target of 200,000 units and a total of 272,948 units attended. In 2008, the target was 4,000 units and the units were 9,936 attended. Regarding the given budget by 2010 they ran the $6034.71 MDP revised budget, just as happened in previous years [CONEVAL 2012b].

National Enterprise Support Fund in solidarity (FONAES) of the SE

According to the D.O.F. of February 25, 2013 (first section) the criteria determining the provisions of the rules of operation FONAES for 2012 (published in the D.O.F. on December 24th, 2011, fifth section) shall apply during fiscal year of 2013. That said, the FONAES promotes and encourages its beneficiaries that they become social enterprises, enhance their social capital, develop their skills and adopt new technologies, so they make teams and companies working partnership arrangements constitute second and third level to promote their integration into value chains, so they get organized to generate their own schemes of capitalization and financing, and then they impact on local and regional development. The objective is to contribute to the generation of entrepreneurial occupations among low-income populations, by supporting the creation and consolidation of productive projects.

Program coverage is national targeting rural areas, farmers, indigenous and urban populations with limited resources, demonstrating their organizational, productive, entrepreneurial ability to open or expand a business population.

Analysis of results of the program

This fund does not have consistent information to potential target population, so that measuring performance in terms of coverage does not allow an efficient evaluation. As general data, in 2008 the program did not fix potential population or target population, delivering results only served population: 61,309 people. For 2009, we calculated a potential basis of 38,976 448 people, with a goal of 6251 population and target population of 40,039 people [CONEVAL 2012c].

For 2010, a population estimated of 45,237 239 people and a target of 44.790 people. The target population reached the number of 46.205 people, 3.15% above the target. In 2011, the potential population was estimated at 3,451,384, and the target population in 48.938. Were treated 48.922 people arriving at 99.97% coverage [CONEVAL 2012c]. Regarding the given budget originally stood at the amount of $1,808.01 MDP that was amended to $1,698.06 MDP and implemented in full. In 2008 and 2009, the same behavior was observed in the implementation of the budget. The amount approved for 2012 is $2,446,888,865 of which $2,158,517,346 represents investment spending and current spending $288,371,519 [CONEVAL 2012d].
Land and installation of rural young entrepreneur fund SEDATU Program

According to the operating rules published in the D.O.F. of February 28th, 2013, the overall objective of the program is to make the “Young rural entrepreneur” implement and consolidate their own “agri-business” profitable and sustainable in the agrarian community to which it belongs; through training and acquisition or rental of land rights, supplies and business support services.

Program coverage should be applied in Núcleos Agrarios (NA, Agrarian Nuclei) of the municipalities that meet the following criteria: a) They are considered zona de atención prioritaria rural (ZAP, rural area of focus), published in the D.O.F. of December 7th, 2010; b) That the NA certificates are, in terms of Article 56 of the agrarian law; c) That the NA do not have agrarian conflict, and d) That the NA have productive potential, count on local market infrastructure and to implement an “agribusiness project”. The target population is the population of NA agrarian subjects between 18 and 39 years old at the time of application, with an interest to undertake an agricultural enterprise, that the farm group present high poverty and productive potential.

Analysis of results of the program

For 2008 there are data on potential or target population, so historical comparisons are not possible, especially if you consider that in 2010 these two categories were redefined by the program itself. For 2009 1 160 564 potential young rural populations was estimated, while for 2010 it became 378 456 and in 2011 only reached 209 043 (because of the redefinition). In 2009 the target population reached the figure of 1 147 511 while in 2010 and 2011 this figure stood at 360 411 and 156 889 respectively [CONEVAL 2012b]. The coverage, however, has been on the increase until 2010, leaving the following values: For 2008, 1 047 young people were attended; in 2009, 1 523 young people and finally for 2010, 1 993 young people were attended (increase of about 90%). For 2011, the target population did not exceed the 1 901 people [CONEVAL 2012b].

Programmes of alternative tourism in indigenous areas (PTAZI) General coordination of building indigenous development and CDI

This program aims to contribute to the development of the indigenous population through the implementation of actions in alternative tourism, through support of organized groups, with activities aimed at the development and implementation of projects, preserving, conserving and sustainably exploiting its natural and cultural heritage, to assist in the creation of alternative income respecting community organization of indigenous people [CDI, 2012; D.O.F. February 27th, 2013, sixth section].
The program has national coverage and attends indigenous municipalities with tourism potential and those classified according to the system of indicators on indigenous people of Mexico. The target population is the agrarian centers, organizations and working groups, made up of natives, who are in the towns of coverage PTAZI and comply with the provisions of the rules of operation and its annexes.

Analysis of results of the program

The program of national coverage since its inception in 2007, established the potential population to total indigenous language speakers or non-speakers in whose home the boss, spouse or ascendant speak an indigenous language which means 10 202 064 native indigenous in Mexico. The target population must have conditions for the development of alternative tourism sites, reducing them to a total of 5 096 286 indigenous located throughout the country [CONEVAL 2012e]. However, the target population reached 0.1% of the target population for 2008 (5 260) and 2010 (5 533) and in 2009 reached 0.08% (3 837) [CONEVAL 2012e].

In 2011 PTAZI had a budget of $220.4 MDP from the federal government. By the fourth quarter, an increase of 100% in the budget year was reported. The percentage of organized indigenous groups receiving profit was 58.4%, compared with a revised target of 69.6%. The percentage of indigenous organized groups where women participate with a modified target of 76.92% achieved at the end 55% in 2011 [CONEVAL 2012e].

The program does not have a hedging strategy for its target population because their goals depend on the applications received and approved. Not quantify or characterize or territorially places the population that has the problem, whether indigenous or indigenous communities that do not adequately exploit the tourism potential of the areas they inhabit. Nor has a strategic action plan containing a planning medium and long term and annual work plans. Also, there are no regulatory guidelines for the preparation of these documents describing the procedures and minimum content to include.

Conservation Program for Sustainable Development (PROCODES) CONANP

The PROCODES promotes sustainable development as it includes environmental, economic and social dimensions. According to the regulations described in the operating rules published in the D.O.F. of February 28th, 2013 (eighth section), the overall objective is to promote the conservation of ecosystems and biodiversity in priority regions, through sustainable use of them with equal opportunities for women and men, with emphasis on the indigenous population of the towns. Within the guidelines of coverage is the poten-
tial population which is the total population living in towns of the municipalities of the priority regions.

The target population is women and men, aged 18 and older, entities that constitute each other, including ejidos, communities and organized groups (other entities), owning, possessing, beneficial owners or users of natural resources within the priority regions.

Analysis of results of the program

The program features a method of calculating potential target population, diagnosis and hedging strategy for the program. However, there is no assessment of the impact caused by it. It has national coverage, with the states of Oaxaca and Chiapas mostly benefited the 17% and 9% of its municipalities, respectively. Representing the indigenous communities benefited much of the total population attended, ensuring gender equality in all activities running the program. There is also a gender approach to evaluate the beneficiary women [CONEVAL 2012f].

The program has its beginnings in 2001, from which the allocated budget grew. However, in the last four years the modified program budget was a considerable increase annually maintaining its equivalence with the budget exercised. For budget cuts in 2010, the budget was lower by 17% compared to 2009. This led to the number of supported communities descended by 3%, and the population directly benefited negative assessment of 7%. The amount exercised corresponds to $156,528 thousand Mexican pesos representing a financial year of 98.75% [CONEVAL 2012f]. Therefore, the population attended in 2010 decreased 20.4% compared to 2009. There is only a variation of 0.2% among the population treated with respect to the target population, reflecting a minimum difference against schedule. In 2011, the creation of new indicators and publication of calls statewide is observed [CONEVAL 2012f].

In 2010, the program was implemented in 194 priority regions, being 129 ANP in 31 states and the Distrito Federal (Mexico City). The indigenous population was 22,755 people benefited representing 43.67% of the total benefit. Through the actions of environmental contingency 77 localities were treated in 58 municipalities in 20 states. 2,218 community projects, 172 technical studies and 408 training courses were supported. Among the community projects, they supported mainly the conservation and restoration of ecosystems through the monitoring and conservation of species, construction of dams and saving stoves [CONEVAL 2012f].

National Forest Program (PRONAFOR) (formerly PROÁRBOL) CONAFOR

PRONAFOR is the primary federal program to support the forestry sector ordering a single scheme granting incentives to owners and landowners to
carry out actions to protect, conserve, restore and sustainably exploit the resources in forests and arid areas of Mexico [CONAFOR 2012].

The program aims to promote sustainable use of forest resources of the country, revive the economy of forestry and improving the quality of life of the inhabitants of forest areas as well as maintain and increase the provision of environmental goods and services to the society and reduce carbon emissions from deforestation and forest degradation [CONAFOR 2012].

According to D.O.F. of March 8th, 2013 (third section), the program has four main components: are forestry, commercial forestry plantations, conservation and restoration and environmental services. They are eligible for support from CONAFOR natural and legal people of Mexican nationality who are owners or holders of forest land (temporary or permanent), and physical and legal persons without owning or possessing the land in question, prove their eligibility under the specific form of support.

Analysis of results of the program

According to CONEVAL [2012D], the ProÁrbol project (the PRONAFOR was preceded by the ProÁrbol program until 2012) has a potential for coverage 21 600 000 hectares (ha), number considering the areas that present needs reduced degradation and fragmentation of forest resources through conservation, restoration and protection of forest areas and incorporating them into sustainable forestry management schemes. Of this total potential for 2010 was estimated aimed at addressing 1 320 000 has, this was reduced to 1 124 000 has when considering hectares served during this exercise.

In relation to previous years the number of hectares covered by the program ProÁrbol has decreased, considering that the same potential and the same annual target in 2008 were attended 1 675 000 has while in 2009 were 1 310 000 has. As a result, the efficiency ratio decreased significantly compared to 2008 and slightly when compared to 2009 [CONEVAL 2012b]. In this period and considering the original 2008 budget $656.29 MDP remained at $655.52 MDP, down to $231.38 MDP in 2010, with a concomitant decrease in performance ($596.54 MDP for 2008, $527.35 MDP for 2009 and $263.39 MDP in 2010). Not much, as in previous years to 2010, the amount is the sum of each budget program and in 2010 only considered regarding a concept, these figures are not comparable to evaluative terms [CONEVAL 2012d]. In general, there is the feasibility of complying with the proposed six-year goal of incorporating 7.92 million hectares in the forest sustainable management. In 2010 84% of this target was reached [CONEVAL 2012d].

Program funding for rural tourism sector in rural finance

It is a lending program that supports projects of rural tourism sector in the short, medium and long term, technically and financially viable. It aims to
facilitate access to institutional credit to farmers and entrepreneurs, to mitigate credit risk with liquid guarantees for projects in the rural tourism sector to encourage the development and strengthening of the sector, through financing of profitable projects that help improve the quality of life of the population settled in rural areas. The target population is individuals and companies with tourism projects in communities with populations of fewer than 50,000 inhabitants [Rural Fund 2013].

According to the operating rules published in the D.O.F. of February 28th, 2013 (tenth and eleventh section) Rural Fund contributes funding policy for sustainable rural development. The eco-tourism related programs are: a) comprehensive program of education, training and consulting for producers and rural financial intermediaries; b) program for reducing costs of access to credit; to strengthen and promote financial inclusion Rural Enterprises (ER) to develop linked to rural economic activities.

Analysis of results of the program

The program of economic integration of rural tourism sector in Rural Fund, aims to raise standards of quality and efficiency of the production chain of tourist services, through the funding of its various activities such as the supply of materials and equipment, design services, infrastructure construction, transportation, promotion and marketing, promoting the participation of rural communities and regions in the process of adding value, to generate an effect of inclusive development in rural areas that contribute to job creation and increase the standard of living of the rural population [Rural Fund, 2013]. It is clear that it was not possible to find information related only to the program, only information on Rural Fund was found, with an analysis of the globally benefited.

To conclude

On the SECTUR webpage of the federal government, we can find the creation of various funding mechanisms to support the development of community productive projects oriented nature tourism in order to improve levels of education and welfare of Mexicans, achieve social development and human in harmony with nature, raise and extend the country’s competitiveness and ensure inclusive development. In this regard eco-tourism as an emerging industry provides alternative options of economic activity for rural communities. Overall attend the programs described above, loan applications and technical cooperation to finance studies and investment projects in the field of tourism in order to attract international tourists and promote domestic tourism by improving the income level of the local population, opens new employment opportunities contributing to the regional integration of man and nature, where each fun-
The government program has particular operating rules where you can find detail the requirements and procedures for access to financing.

Eco-tourism, as a modality, has grown rapidly in recent years, such is its global importance that the United Nations designated 2002 as the “International Year of Eco-tourism” in that sense, that this activity is in full planning is necessary and product development and its challenge to sustainability, monitoring and regulation as well as assessing progress toward sustainability, marketing and promotion of eco-tourism and how to reach sustainable consumers and meet costs and benefits among stakeholders.

References


D.O.F. Jueves 28 de febrero de 2013 (Octava Sección). ACUERDO por el que se establecen las Reglas de Operación del Programa de Conservación para el Desarrollo Sostenible (PROCODES) para el ejercicio fiscal 2013.


Succession Potential and Succession Practices of Polish Family Enterprises

Introduction

Family enterprises (although variously defined) are imbued with distinctive specificity. It is the result of two spheres – the business and family spheres – penetrating each other, which turns the family business (FB) not only into an entity with a specific form of ownership, but also into a distinct type of business. This constellation of family and business imposes behavior and reactions which are different from those observed in anonymous companies or implicates challenges not encountered in other structures. They can be seen clearly in current, yet mostly in the long-term behaviors which include, for example, succession process.

The research on succession processes usually adopts the conventional assumption that there is a certain uniform imperative of continuation – passing on the family business which is then taken over by next generations. Not unlike migratory birds with their genetically preserved proclivity for traveling and returning to a particular place, regardless of external circumstances, the successors ultimately return home from their professional comings and goings so as to take over the business with the goal in mind of keeping it in the family.

However, it seems that the theoretical base of the attempts to interpret succession behaviors on the basis of the aforementioned belief are too weak and not confirmed empirically in the contemporary world of alternative possibilities (in particular professional careers). Nor, more importantly, do they allow for understanding the reasons behind the falling interest among the successors’ generation to take over the family business.
Consequently, one should leave behind these commonplace assumptions (however true in the past) and search for a different theoretical base in order to analyze this type of phenomena. On the basis of the conducted research, such prospective views include exchange theory (as provided by P. Blau) which describes the social world as an arrangement in which material and nonmaterial goods are exchanged among people ("one thing in return for another").

The analytical base for the verification of the different approach towards succession processes was provided by the studies conducted within the framework of the project *Succession strategies of Polish family enterprises* and extensive empirical material that was collected. The aim of the project was the attempt to identify succession practices in Polish family enterprises, i.e. to see how they solve one of the fundamental issues of the family business. The article presents one of the aspects of the wider issue – succession potential of enterprises and its impact on the attitudes of owners and successors.

Characteristics of the surveyed enterprises

The realization of the cognitive aim was based on several starting hypotheses of which one suggests that there is not such a thing as one model of succession ensuring strategic continuity of family enterprise; and that intra-family succession is increasingly frequently being superseded by external succession.

390 family enterprises took part in the survey fulfilling the following criteria:

– they were family businesses in the strict sense (i.e. the family is the owner of the firm, at least two of the family members work in the firm, including in managerial positions),

– they had "succession potential" – the owners have children (their own or with the partner),

– they have been on the market at least 10 years,

– they have been operating within the meaning of the Act on *freedom of economic activity*.

The profile of enterprises participating in the survey was as follows (see Figure 1):
Succession concepts as a component of the strategy of enterprise

According to the authors of the cited survey, the search for the answer to the question of succession models and their determinants leads through questions about the place of the succession process in the business concept of the owners/enterprise. The findings in this area, i.e. determining to what extent it is an important element of this concept (which is exemplified by the development strategy itself) will determine the owners’ practices within this scope. If succession is not a component of the business concept, then it remains mainly an issue of emotions, family and thus can be defined by the principles of seniority, responsibility for the fate of the family, obligations towards future generations, etc. On the other hand, if it is a component of the business concept, then this process will be subject to similar rules that govern every strategic decision in the enterprise and will have to be settled at the rationality level.

Source: own work.
There is hardly any doubt that the way the succession was treated in the surveyed enterprises was significantly influenced by the way the strategy itself was treated. Contrary to the expectations, the way succession was treated was much further from the formal concepts (planning) and much closer to the interpretation of strategy as a model of activity or rules of behavior. To this end, “(...)strategy is a general way in which organization behaves towards its outside and internal environment. The firm's adopted behaviors are included both in its plans of actions and models of conduct (in the form of principles, rules) which are constructed in such a way as to keep up, at least in terms of their intentions, with the pace of the behavior of the environment (...)” [Krupski 1998, p. 16]. It can therefore be expected that entrepreneurs and enterprises treat succession on the whole in a similar way.

The identification of the types of behavior was carried out through the analysis of the owners’ views on the sources and change dynamics occurring in the enterprise. The questions were so formulated as to include the component of succession in the inquiries about the future. This method of evaluation allowed for distinguishing 4 basic strategic types with one type being the largest – the mixed type signifying indecision. The first type could be described as the strategy of continuance (lack of changes), the second type represents the strategy of change and development through internal succession, the third type – signifies the strategy of change, close cooperation and development through internal succession, the fourth type – represents a defensive strategy relating to the essential change which in the best case signifies the sale of the enterprise and in most cases its liquidation. One can see here that succession represents one of the important dimensions of the development strategy – succession opportunities are the source of development, whereas their lack provides a strong defensive rationale – liquidation.

The owners are not made aware of these links between the strategy and succession strategy. What is more, there is nothing in enterprises that could be called a formal succession strategy or even succession planning (and if so, then very infrequently). Yet, that does not mean that there are no thoughts devoted to succession at all. However, it is considered rather in terms of ownership than management.

To the majority of respondents it is clear that having some sort of vision of development, views on the firm’s future is necessary. On the other hand, the solutions for succession they treat as an immediate issue that should be solved when it becomes a current affair due to the circumstances [strategy is not a tool for shaping the relationship family – business but merely to shape business priorities].

This dissonance may come as a surprise but only on the surface. What raises interest of researchers and observers differs from what interests fami-
ly entrepreneurs. This is not the result of a lack of reflection on the part of Polish entrepreneurs but rather their manifestation of rationality. The main reason for this is that whereas strategy is perceived as a process and reference to the future for which one should prepare, succession is usually treated as a one-time act that will happen in the remote future, regardless of actions taken. In particular, the intra-family succession is not a component of planning but of a natural condition. In most situations family enterprises adopt certain mechanisms, “learnt” behaviors, reflexes while in extraordinary situations they show flexibility, creativity, ability to improvise. In order to understand this nonchalant attitude towards succession it is necessary to have some point of reference (criterion) for the assessment of the implementation process. We associate it with the dominance of optics, which one could call “family first”. This philosophy, employing the terminology of P. Kotler and J.A. Casilione, endows the family enterprises with the ability and skill to develop a system of automatic reactions which are not preceded by long-term analyses and measurement systems. If particular situations occur, the firm responds adequately thanks to its reaction potential.

Succession is usually treated as a family affair. The search for a suitable candidate for the role of successor in the family business is most frequently conducted taking into account emotional perspective. In addition to that, we tried to look at the succession process taking into consideration the business side. The owner’s and manager’s perspective (often the same person) can differ and depending on which is the dominant one succession may be treated as an important issue for the business and placed in a sort of a formal dimension, or may be treated as an issue played out between offspring and parents, reaching beyond verbal agreements.

Exploring succession processes in the perspective of exchange theory

The assertion that succession process is not a component of a formal plan, of structured and well thought-out actions of the owners, but merely of their intuition forces one to raise further questions. If the successor cannot „integrate” himself/herself „in some defined process (succession strategies) with

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22 Specifying this „reference point” involves finding what kind of subordination relationships exist between family life sphere and business. In the literature on the subject three possible relationships are pointed out (a) family first 168, (b) business first, (c) family business. Family first – represents a philosophy consisting in adopting and following rules which serve best the family system, ensuring family’s cohesion, realization of the goals and ambitions of the family members. Business first – a philosophy in which the firm’s priorities take over family’s priorities. In the perspective business first the firm is the most important for as long as it lasts it provides the plane where family’s including its members’ goals can be realized. Family business – represents a compromise between the interest of the family and of the business. In this perspective a kind of a balance is offered between the two spheres. The goals are the combination of the family’s aspirations and the demands of the business.
specific parameters of “entry”, then what the “dialogue” or “tender” in the line between owners and successors entails. Here, as the research suggests, the exchange theory, as interpreted by P.M Blau [1964], shows promising results. Behavior patterns and strategies realized by rational (i.e. following their own interest) entities refer to the transfer of basic succession areas in organization: ownership, power, knowledge, values, which cover the exchange relationships in two two areas of economic and family structures. It was important for such concept to identify what both sides of the process hold; i.e. to identify what owners have at their disposal (business representatives) and what families have to “offer” (family representatives).

Thus, we tried to identify the potentials of family enterprise. This attempt involved acknowledging that the succession potential is made up of two components – family potential and inheritance potential (subject of succession). The family potential is made up of the closest family members, i.e. there are persons in the closest family circle capable of becoming potential successors; their age, mental and physical health, preferably also their predispositions, allow for taking them into consideration in discussions regarding the future of the enterprise. Moreover, the subject of succession comprises tangible and intangible resources of the firm, including the rights and responsibilities associated with them, which can become the subject of transfer. If we were to compare these two components, then we would have a matrix of various types of family firms, according to their succession potential.

Figure 2. The impact of the potentials on the future of the enterprise

Source: own work.
This succession potential, as to be expected, is closely related to the cultural and social context. Both the demographic situation manifested in the fall in the birth rate and the model of Polish enterprise based on a small-scale operation, treating one’s own business as a necessary evil and the “soloistic” nature of businesses tend to create a rather unfriendly space for succession.

This situation determines substantially the practices and behaviors of the both sides of the succession process. In our survey, it finds its expression when it comes to identifying rewards and reinforcements used by the owners for the purpose of supporting, strengthening or raising the interest of their children so they would get involved in the family business.

**Table 1. The impact of environmental determinants on succession behaviors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental determinants</th>
<th>Manifestations</th>
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| Demographic situation and family model       | - Traditional model of marital roles  
  - 2,7 million families with no children; almost 2 million account for single-parent families; mothers or fathers;  
  - average number of persons in a household 2,82 ;  
  - high percentage of people living with parents [Dudek 2014] |
| Polish entrepreneurship model                 | - entrepreneurship of the initial stage  
  - smaller percentage of firms managed by owners, compared to the EU countries;  
  - their own firm is an additional workplace for owners;  
  - small asset of Polish enterprises;  
  - low profits;  
  - artisanal nature [Gardawski 2013, p. 165]. |


Dudek 2014: The study determines the percentage of people at the age of 25-34 living with their parents. The published data shows that in 2011 in Poland, as many as 44,4 percent of young people at the age of 23-34 were living with their parents. The average in this period of time in the EU was 28.3 percent.

„As regards the aim of their actions, parents’ motivations to raise their children’s interest in the firm and its affairs may vary: from the desire to give a chance for personal development, to ensuring that children have a workplace to the intention to pass the firm on to them. None of these motives excludes succession option in the future as the objective conditions or the succession situation itself change. In this respect, parents’ continued effort to keep children interested in the firm is on the one hand a winning strategy, yet at the same time it turns them into bidders offering instrumental rewards which are based on the possibilities the firm can provide” [Gardawski 2013, p. 165].
What was observed in the surveyed group was the pervasiveness of the specific rewards used to maintain children’s interest. They are of various kinds—from automatic rewards, as part of the socialization process in its broadest sense to more sophisticated rewards which are a much thought-out component in the game whose stake is becoming the successor. The rewards and incentives resulting from casting children in the role of the manager of the family firm belonged to the group of rewards relatively least frequent (69% of children who were offered rewards). On the other hand, the most frequent and common situation for the socializing scheme is showing children work in the firm thus raising their interest (87% of children who were given rewards) – which is incidentally the most common feature of education aimed at preparing for the work in the firm.

Table 2. Types of instrumental rewards addressed to children by owners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Reward</th>
<th>Indications</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We show them work in our firm and try to raise their interest in it</td>
<td>87,0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We allow them to work in the firm on a casual basis</td>
<td>86,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We employ and reward them very handsomely</td>
<td>77,1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We encourage them to develop and implement their own ideas in the firm</td>
<td>79,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We propose/give them work in an autonomous position in the firm</td>
<td>75,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We let them manage people’s/department work in the firm</td>
<td>69,3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In their conduct with children, over half of firm owners (parents) uses a broad range of potential and actual rewards and benefits. The rewards are not there to provide the rationale to convince children to succession but they are tools to respond rationally towards children’s attitudes, with the tools corresponding to these attitudes. Consequently, in the situation of low succession potential e.g. in the owner’s view the children do not declare any interest in the firm, the scale of instrumental rewards tends to be very small.

If there is one child interested in succession, the scale of rewards is the most intensive (the child receives lots of rewards for its readiness to succession). On the other hand, if there are more children interested in succession, then from the perspective of economics of behavior, the owner is not obliged to maximize rewards; the high level in this respect accounts for only 38% of cases of firms where more than one child takes interest in succession.

This philosophy of reacting rationally also involves the level of readiness for leaving the firm (thus the readiness for succession as well). In firms in which the respondent is not ready to take this step high rewards account for as many as 62% of cases, whereas in firms where the respondent declares his/her readiness to leave the business moderate rewards are the most prevailing (69%). The interpretation of this phenomenon is rather obvious.
The rewards are also related to other than commonly assumed approach towards “the subject of succession”. In our studies, we decomposed this aggregate, taking the view that there are four components subject to inter-generational transfer – ownership, power, knowledge and values. This approach enabled us to observe that for each of these segments different succession practices are adopted with the role of rewards being different as well. The smaller the succession potential and the lower the material value, the stronger the rewards oriented towards nonmaterial values of the enterprise.

Time plays a significant role in these practices – the lower the firm’s value, the longer the succession process (thinking about succession begins earlier). An equivalent mechanism plays here a substantial role – if the material value of the enterprise is small then other, nonmaterial values, whose transfer requires much more time, “are offered” as an equivalent. As already mentioned before, each of the succession components is subject to differentiated succession “procedures”. Values and knowledge are often passed on and taken over despite or even against the will of the participants of the process. The values are adopted during the long process of socialization in the family and in the enterprise, which is a lifelong process and in fact independent of succession plans. These four components are rarely transferred simultaneously since the length of time needed for their absorption varies. For the most part, ownership and power are perceived from the formal side, hence the process of transferring these assets does not seem particularly complicated. Professional and managerial knowledge is treated as an important element of competences, often crucial when choosing successor. Yet it is rarely perceived as an integral part of the process that should be integrated in the entire decision making. Values, on the other hand, if made aware of, are something so obvious that they are neither discussed nor widely reflected on, yet they fail to permeate the practices. Employing H. Mintzberg’s terminology, one might say that as regards knowledge and values, succession strategies are spontaneous (emergent), implemented despite and at times against the owners’ will.

This broader view on succession (through these four components) allows for discerning a great variety of enterprises which undergo the process of succession. The survey shows that the majority of them are “non-succession” enterprises, i.e. those which are of no value to potential buyers (successors), since they have no market value, with some representing only sentimental value. If the enterprise’s capability to generate value (profit) at present and in the future is minimal, then what actually decides about keeping it in the family is its “historical”, sentimental value; which might however be too costly for the successor to take on as a challenge.
Conclusion

The studies, the results presented above, suggest that succession strategies (like development concepts in general) understood as a formal and structured process of transferring power, ownership, knowledge and values as well as forecasting its consequences actually does not exist.

However, one should not think that enterprises (entrepreneurs) are defenseless against this most crucial development of the enterprise in the long-term perspective. It is rather their very rational behavior that one can detect here. On the one hand, they are aware, most often intuitively, of the actual value of their enterprise for the successor so they take no actions to raise the successor’s interest in the situation in which the market potential of the enterprise is too low. (Here the real problem tends to be the lack of skills to commercialize their business). On the other hand, they have developed a mechanism of “automatic” reactions which enables them to take rational actions in difficult situations (including those related to succession), even without having any formal concepts prepared.

It is not only the formal process that is treated as something to do in the future, but also even reflecting on the time needed for succession and the way to carry it out are treated similarly. The weakness of this kind of approach lies in that although it works in conceptual and business area, it does not work within the formal and legal framework. The lack of legal regulations may be of no significance to the family, employees, or even suppliers, yet for the bank, leasing company, revenue office and court it might present the situation in which further business operation is ruled out.

Bibliography


El Desarrollo Sustentable, los Impactos y Beneficios de los Proyectos de Energía Eólica en la Región del Istmo de Tehuantepec

Medio ambiente y desarrollo sostenible

Durante décadas el medio ambiente fue visto como un insumo complementario a la actividad productiva que repercutía en un mayor crecimiento económico. En los años setenta del siglo XX se analizó la importancia de los recursos naturales relacionada con el bienestar económico y social de la ciudadanía. En la declaración de la Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas sobre el Medio Ambiente Humano realizada en Estocolmo, Suecia en 1972, se establecieron 24 principios y se proclamó que se “atenta a la necesidad de un criterio y principios comunes que ofrezcan a los pueblos del mundo inspiración y guía para preservar y mejorar el medio ambiente” [Declaración de Estocolmo 1972]. La propuesta que derivó de esto fue el documento “Los límites del crecimiento” de D. L. Meadows, en él se planteó que “si se mantienen las tendencias actuales de crecimiento de la población mundial, industrialización, contaminación ambiental, producción de alimentos y agotamiento de los recursos, este planeta alcanzará los límites de su crecimiento en el curso de los próximos cien años. El resultado más probable sería un súbito e incontrolable desenlace tanto de la población como de la capacidad industrial” [Meadows 1972].

La propuesta de establecer límites al crecimiento, no sin una serie de críticas y cuestionamientos a esta idea, fue el resultado de la conferencia en Estocolmo y se constituyó como el primer llamado de atención a los gobiernos de
todo el mundo para que prestaran atención al uso intensivo que se estaba dando a los recursos y a los impactos sobre el medio ambiente.

Con el informe denominado “Nuestro futuro común” donde propone una visión diferente -es posible crecer y cuidar el medio ambiente- a partir del concepto de desarrollo sostenible, se sugiere a los países del mundo tasas de crecimiento que garanticen el desarrollo de los países atrasados y al mismo tiempo la conservación de los recursos naturales que se heredaran a las futuras generaciones. Los aspectos que se incorporaron fue que los problemas ambientales rebasaban las fronteras nacionales y se requería de la protección de los recursos por ser de carácter global, y que el medio ambiente y el desarrollo constituían una fórmula inseparable y que el tema del desarrollo no era un asunto sólo del tercer mundo.

El énfasis en el desarrollo económico responde a la preocupación de muchos países, bajo la visión que supone un nivel de vida semejante al de los países industrializados como sinónimo de bienestar. Bajo una perspectiva macroeconómica, el desarrollo y el crecimiento se han visto como sinónimos, donde la variable indicativa para medirlo es el Producto Interno Bruto (PIB), el cual se volvió la medida corriente del nivel de desarrollo en cualquier lugar del mundo, bajo esa idea han proliferado actividades económicas que han impactado fuertemente sobre el medio ambiente con la finalidad de incrementar la tasa de crecimiento del PIB.

El concepto de desarrollo sostenible que se socializó a partir de 1987 a través del Informe Brundtland, dio la pauta para que veinte años después de la Conferencia de Estocolmo se diera reconocimiento de que los problemas ambientales van más allá del agotamiento de los recursos y de los efectos locales.

La Cumbre de Río de Janeiro en 1992, enfatizó el problema del cambio climático como efecto del uso irracional de la naturaleza en su conjunto, y en ella surgieron dos aspectos importantes: se sumó a las acciones de los gobiernos la participación del sector empresarial; y se cuestionó fuertemente el modelo de desarrollo basado en el uso de combustibles fósiles y sus efectos con lo que se planteó la necesidad de buscar mecanismo de desarrollo limpio a partir de la sustitución de las fuentes tradicionales de energía por energías alternativas.

El desarrollo de nuevas tecnologías en torno a la energía y productos con menor impacto sobre el medio ambiente ha generado una transformación en los mercados tanto desde el lado de la oferta donde los agentes innovadores (sea institutos de investigación, empresas o individuos) requieren de un nuevo marco legal y social que soporte el proceso de transformación que

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23 El propósito de este informe fue encontrar medios prácticos para revertir los problemas ambientales y de desarrollo del mundo y para lograrlo destinaron tres años a audiencias públicas y recibieron más de 500 comentarios escritos, que fueron analizados por científicos y políticos provenientes de 21 países y distintas ideologías.
impacta sobre los aspectos sociales y culturales de la población, como desde el lado de la demanda que empieza a exigir un categoría diferente de productos y servicios. El análisis de este proceso se aborda desde diversas perspectivas como la eco-innovación, el desarrollo sostenible local, el institucionalismo, la política pública, el crecimiento verde, etc.

Cuando se pretende generar un marco explicativo del fenómeno descrito y los impactos que derivan del mismo es difícil separar las perspectivas mencionadas, ya que desde la política pública se va construyendo un entramado que incorpora diversos agentes que participan como beneficiarios o como perjudicados de las acciones que se realizan, también existen aquellos que en el marco de la innovación son líderes en el proceso de transformación tecnológica y otros que son seguidores, existe además toda la institucionalidad que se configura desde el sector público (instituciones, normas, leyes, apoyos, etc.) para generar las condiciones que propicien el desarrollo de “las acciones a favor de la sostenibilidad” y este es el punto central en esta discusión porque la afirmación de “a favor” es relativa, aunque los criterios universales de conservación de los recursos naturales y el medio ambiente se han discutido en las agendas nacionales e internacional y están claramente establecidos (no exceder los límites de recuperación de los recursos naturales renovables, minimizar hasta llegar al punto de no depender de los recursos naturales no renovables, reducir la generación de residuos a un nivel que respete los ritmos de asimilación de la naturaleza, modificar acciones que están impactando sobre el cambio climático), lo cierto es que cada acción que se ha venido impulsando no logra generar equilibrios en el sentido de favorecer a los distintos grupos sociales de la misma forma y por el contrario se observa que “las acciones a favor de la sostenibilidad” se justifican en un sentido porque permite que ciertos grupos participen en su realización, mejoren su reputación, se beneficien económicamente, pero al mismo tiempo generan impactos negativos de carácter social, cultural, económico y ambiental para otros grupos que repercuten y determinan los adjetivos del desarrollo que se dan a nivel de las localidades.

México inició un proceso de inserción a la ola de desarrollo sustentable en los primeros años de la década de los ochentas, que también fueron la antesala de la globalización y la integración de México a la economía internacional, ello marcó la trayectoria del país en diversos aspectos y el desarrollo de políticas ambientales en otros países incidieron para que en el país empezaran a tomarse algunas acciones orientadas a la construcción de una política ambiental como: la creación de instituciones específicas, leyes y normas ambientales así como el fomento de programas y firma de convenios internacionales. A pesar de los avances legislativos e institucionales, el deterioro ambiental en México continua como un problema grave, para las empresas se
ha convertido en una posibilidad de generar nuevos y rentables mercados y para la sociedad civil está presente la limitada capacidad de hacerse escuchar.

Energía eólica a nivel mundial y en México

Actualmente la energía eólica ha desarrollado una gran capacidad instalada para la generación de energía, gracias a las reformas legales, estímulos fiscales, apoyos gubernamentales, subsidios, normativas internacionales y legislación. Además se han generado tecnologías cada vez más acordes que han entrado en competencia con los combustibles fósiles.

El desarrollo tecnológico en México para el uso de energía eólica se inició en 1977 con el programa de aprovechamiento del Instituto de Investigaciones Eléctricas (IIE). Las investigaciones del instituto han servido para conocer la magnitud de vientos aprovechables y económicamente viables en las regiones de la Península de Baja California, la Península de Yucatán, las Costas del país y del Altiplano Norte.

En México las grandes empresas productoras de energía eólica han sido beneficiarias de las leyes y acuerdos promovidos por el gobierno federal, ya que a los propietarios de la tierra les pagan muy poco por ocupar miles de hectáreas donde han instalado sus parques eólicos. La caída del arrendamiento de la tierra es drástica en comparación con el estándar internacional al situarse en porcentajes que van de 0.025% a 1.53% de los ingresos brutos. En 2008 en México la capacidad instalada para generar electricidad con energía eólica era sólo de 0.16 %, y actualmente es un país líder en Latinoamérica en inversión y proyección de capacidad a instalar.

La reforma energética fue planteada por Felipe Calderón y el Congreso Mexicano la aprobó en 2008. La reforma marca una planeación a largo plazo del sector, buscando la consistencia de políticas hacia una transición energética parcial y limitada, basada en tres elementos: La formación de un fondo para el fomento de las energías renovables. En el mes de marzo de 2009 el subsecretario anunció que, este fondo sería para apoyo a la investigación básica. Una propuesta de acciones para establecer las bases sobre mecanismos de compra de energía procedente de fuentes renovables, y acciones de fomento del ahorro y la eficiencia.

La reforma energética está integrada por los siguientes seis dictámenes.

– Ley Reglamentaria del Artículo 27, referente al petróleo.
– Ley de Adquisiciones, Arrendamientos y Servicios del Sector Público para PEMEX.
– Ley de la Comisión Reguladora de Energía.
– Ley para el Aprovechamiento de las Energías Renovables y Financiamiento de la Transición Energética.
Actualmente, los gobiernos estatales y municipales tienen más interés en desarrollar proyectos eólico-eléctricos porque se ha incrementado la conciencia ambiental, lo que ha derivado en acciones concretas para poner en marcha políticas públicas que aprovechen las energías renovables, también se debe al alza de los energéticos y a que el gobierno ha tenido presiones económicas y busca alternativas para reducir sus gastos de consumo de energía.

Energía eólica en el Istmo de Tehuantepec del estado de Oaxaca

La región del Istmo de Tehuantepec se localiza en el estado de Oaxaca y está considerado un sitio estratégico para el desarrollo del país a través del desarrollo de proyectos de energía eólica. Los Laboratorios de Energía Renovable de los Estados Unidos (NREL, por sus siglas en inglés), calcularon que solamente el Istmo de Tehuantepec tiene un potencial aprovechable de hasta 35 mil Mega Watts, y en forma muy conservadora el Instituto de Investigaciones Eléctricas (IIE) ha calculado en 5 mil.

El área con mayor potencial para la construcción de centrales eólicas en nuestro país la constituye la región del Istmo de Tehuantepec, aunque existen discrepancias en el arrendamiento de terrenos y el posible impacto en la avifauna de la región. La industria de la energía eólica comenzó en Oaxaca por el gran potencial que tiene en materia de energía eólica y es uno de los mejores sitios a nivel mundial. Aunque Oaxaca no es el único sitio con potencial pero tiene la concentración y el potencial que no se encuentra en otras partes. En esta región se han generado manifestaciones a favor y en contra del proyecto eólico.

La zona del Istmo de Tehuantepec es ideal para instalar los proyectos de energía eólica, ya que posee velocidades de viento entre 5 y 20 m/s, pero se han generado manifestaciones a favor y en contra de este tipo de proyectos. En esta región ha sido viable el desarrollo de proyectos eólicos, ya que en México los inconvenientes han sido subsanados por acuerdos y normatividades.

La Ley para el Aprovechamiento de las Energías Renovables y Financiamiento de la Transición Energética (AERyFTE), fue publicada en el diario oficial de la federación el 28 de noviembre de 2008. Esta ley tiene por objeto regular el aprovechamiento de fuentes de energía renovables y las tecnologías limpias para generar electricidad con fines distintos a la prestación del servicio público de energía eléctrica.

La NOM-081-SEMARNAT-1994 fue establecida por el gobierno federal en 1994. Esta norma se refiere a los límites máximos permisibles de emisión de ruido de las fuentes fijas y su método de medición, y los límites de los horarios máximos permisibles: de 6:00 a 22:00 = 68 db y de 22:00 a 6:00 = 65 db.
Para el desarrollo del país se necesita generar fuentes alternas de energía y que se pague por el arrendamiento de las tierras de manera justa, así como de implementar estrategias para disminuir los impactos negativos que se están teniendo sobre la avifauna de la región, y todo esto son elementos dignos de tomarse en cuenta.

El discurso oficial actual plantea un panorama “viable” para el desarrollo del proyecto eólico, ya que los inconvenientes y los subsanan por acuerdos y normatividades y que es viable llegar a acuerdos entre empresas y campesinos.

Tres de los parques eólicos del Istmo son de la (CFE): La venta I, II y III (Figura 1.)

**Figura 1. Línea del tiempo proyectos CFE**

Los primeros proyectos de energía eólica los inició la (CFE) y posteriormente participó la iniciativa privada. El control de la región lo tienen las transnacionales (principalmente españolas) y algunas compañías mexicanas. Oaxaca se ha convertido en una atracción de las inversiones para establecer proyectos de energía Eólica.

Los proyectos de energía eólica en Oaxaca [Henestroza Orozco 2008] La región del Istmo de Tehuantepec en el estado de Oaxaca, ha sido considerada desde hace muchos años como un sitio estratégico para el desarrollo del país, un proyecto relevante para ello es la generación de energía eóli-
ca. En esta región, se han generado manifestaciones a favor y en contra de los proyectos eólicos; la necesidad de generar fuentes alternas de energía para el desarrollo del país y el pago justo por el arrendamiento de las tierras, así como el impacto negativo que se tendría sobre la avifauna de la región, constituyen elementos dignos de tomarse en cuenta. Sin embargo, la postura oficial plantea un panorama viable para el desarrollo de los proyectos eólicos ya que los inconvenientes pueden ser subsanados por acuerdos y normatividades y ello se constata en el Cuadro 1 que resume los proyectos instalados a la fecha.

**Cuadro 1. Proyectos de Energía Eólica en Oaxaca 1994–2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proyecto</th>
<th>Empresa</th>
<th>Modalidad del Proyecto</th>
<th>Fabricante</th>
<th>Fecha de OC</th>
<th>Capacidad [MW]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>La Venta</td>
<td>CFE</td>
<td>OFF</td>
<td>Vestas</td>
<td>1994</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>La Venta II</td>
<td>CFE</td>
<td>OFF</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>83.30</td>
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<tr>
<td>La Venta III</td>
<td>Iberdrola/Gamesa</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>49.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La Ventosa</td>
<td>Iberdrola/Gamesa</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>30.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eurus, 1st Phase</td>
<td>CEMEX/ACCOMIA</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Acciona</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>37.50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eurus 2nd Phase</td>
<td>CEMEX/ACOMIA</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Acciona</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bi Nee Stipa I</td>
<td>Cisa-Gamesa</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>26.30</td>
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<tr>
<td>La Meta - La Ventosa</td>
<td>Electricit de Valle</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Clipper</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>67.50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fuera Eólica del Istmo</td>
<td>Peñoles</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Clipper</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>50.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oaxaca II, III y IV</td>
<td>CFE/ACCOMIA</td>
<td>PEE</td>
<td>Acciona</td>
<td>2012</td>
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<td>PEE</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
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<td>CFE/IFREA</td>
<td>PEE</td>
<td>Vestas</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>102.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuera Eólica del Istmo</td>
<td>Peñoles</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Clipper</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>30.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bii Nee Stipa II (Stipa Nayarí)</td>
<td>Cisa-Gamesa</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>74.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bii Nee Stipa III (Zapilooapan)</td>
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<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>70.00</td>
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<td>Pedro Larga</td>
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<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
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<td>Bii Stimi</td>
<td>Eoliatex del Istmo</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
<td>2012</td>
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<tr>
<td>La Ventosa III</td>
<td>Iberdrola/Gamesa</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
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<td>Eoliatex del Pacifico</td>
<td>Iberdrola/Gamesa</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
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<td>160.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bii Nee Stipa II Fase II El Retiro</td>
<td>Cisa-Gamesa</td>
<td>Autoabastecimiento</td>
<td>Gamesa</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>74.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


OPF: Obra pública Financiada  PEE: Productor de Energía Eólica

En 1986, la Comisión Federal de Electricidad (CFE) instaló estaciones anemométricas en el Istmo de Tehuantepec, se generó interés en la región y se realizaron diferentes evaluaciones del potencial eólico del Istmo de Tehuantepec, tanto por la CFE como por el Laboratorio Nacional de Energía Renovable de los Estados Unidos, National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL), este último a petición del Gobierno del Estado de Oaxaca y financiado por el Programa de las Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo (PNUD).

En 1994, la (CFE) logró realizar la construcción del primer proyecto experimental de energía eólica, LaVenta I, de 1.575 mega-watts de capacidad que
se ubicó en el poblado de La Venta, agencia municipal de Juchitán, Oaxaca, donde se instalaron siete aerogeneradores con una capacidad de 225 kilowatts cada uno. La zona se caracteriza por fuertes vientos cuya velocidad promedio anual fluctúa entre los 20 y 25 metros por segundo, la cual coloca a la región como una de las de mayor potencial generador de energía eólica en el mundo.

En el 2006, se llevó a cabo la inauguración del parque eólico La Venta II, una central con 83.3 mega-watts con capacidad para generar electricidad para aproximadamente 45 mil viviendas. El parque eólico se ubicó en la región sur del Istmo de Tehuantepec al norte de la población de La Venta, municipio de Juchitán de Zaragoza. En el proyecto se consideró la instalación de 98 aerogeneradores, de los cuales cada uno produce 850 kilowatts, hecho que lo convierte en el parque eólico más grande de América Latina. Ambas (Venta I y II) son operadas por CFE. Para La Venta II, la empresa española Gamesa aportó los aerogeneradores e Iberinco, también de origen español, se encargó de desarrollar los trabajos de ingeniería y construcción para entregar el proyecto bajo la modalidad “Llave en mano”. Se trata de un proyecto de gran importancia que permite a México colocarse como líder en la producción eléctrica alterna en América Latina.

En 2008, se inició el proyecto La Venta III, actualmente operada por ACCIONA, con una producción estimada de 101 mega-watts de capacidad total y un rango por aerogenerador de 1.0 a 2.5 mega-watts. La empresa ganadora del proyecto eólico La Venta III fue la primera en recibir como incentivo 1.1 centavos de dólar por kilowatt-hora entregado a la red eléctrica durante los primeros cinco años de operación, por parte del Banco Mundial.

Había sido alrededor de 14 empresas privadas las interesadas en instalar centrales eólicas en el Istmo de Tehuantepec bajo la figura de Sociedad de Autoabastecimiento, tales como: Iberdrola, Unión Fenosa, Eoliatec, WalMart, Soriana, Preneal, Endesa, entre otras, las cuales iniciaron en ese mismo año (2008) un proceso de mediciones anemométricas y procuración de reservas territoriales arrendatarias.

En 2009 se inició con los proyectos Oaxaca I y II con la generación adicional de 101 mega-watts y en 2010 Oaxaca III y IV cuya producción estimada era de 304 mega-watts adicionales.

La CFE calcula que el potencial eólico de México es superior a los 5000 mega-watts, por ello, se espera que en los próximos años continúe el desarrollo de proyectos que aprovechen esta energía alterna. En México se pretende colocar hasta tres mil aerogeneradores en el Istmo de Tehuantepec para el año 2030.

En 2013, se consolidó el llamado “corredor ístmico” donde se habían instalado formalmente 14 parques eólicos (La Venta I, La Venta II, La Ven-
ta III, Parques Eólicos de México, Eurus Acciona, Oaxaca I, Oaxaca II, Oaxaca III, Oaxaca IV, Electricidad del Valle de México, Bi ne Stipa, Bi stipa nayaa, Fuerza Eólica de México y Piedra larga.) y estaban en construcción 7 Parques Eólicos de México en La Ventosa, La empresa española Iberdrola genera 80 MW bajo el esquema de Autoabastecimiento, es decir, que la electricidad que produce es consumida por sus socios (el también llamado Parque Eólico Eurus (PEE) fue promovido por Cementos Mexicanos (Cemex) desde 2005 y hacia finales de este año podrá incursionar en los mercados de valores en la colocación de Bonos de Carbono valuados, a precios de hoy, en seis millones de euros, con su entrada en operación, se dejarán de emitir 600 mil toneladas de dióxido de carbono (CO2) a la atmósfera y ello le dará derecho a colocarlos mediante estos títulos “verdes”.

Eurus / ACCIONA ubicada en La Venta, produce 250 MW y opera bajo el esquema de Autoabastecimiento. Oaxaca I, ubicada en Santo Domingo Ingenio, es administrada por la empresa ACS conocida como Dragados y opera bajo el esquema de PEE. Produce 101 MW. Oaxaca II, III y IV son operadas por ACCIONA bajo el esquema de PEE y juntas producen 303 MW. La III está ubicada en La Venta y la II y IV en Santo Domingo Ingenio. Electricidad del Valle de México, ubicada en tierras de La Ventosa (Juchitán) y La Mata (Asunción Ixtaltepec), es operada por la francesa EDF y produce 90 MW bajo el esquema de Autoabastecimiento. Bi ne Stipa (Fuerza del viento), produce 26 MW. Se localiza en tierras de El Espinal y operada por Iberdrola desde el 2010. Bi Stipa nayaa (Fuerza del viento limpia), es una ampliación de Bi ne Stipa, produce 70 MW bajo el esquema de Autoabastecimiento y es operada por la italiana ENEL, que se la compró a la española Endesa. Se ubica en tierras del Espinal.

Fuerza Eólica de México es la única empresa de capital mexicano que opera en el Istmo. Está en El Espinal y es propiedad del grupo Peñoles, que se dedican a la minería. Funciona con el esquema de Autoabastecimiento, produce 80 MW y finalmente Piedra Larga, ubicada en Unión Hidalgo. Es operada por la española Desarrollos Eólicos de México (DEMEX). Se encuentra en etapa “Puesta en marcha” y producirá 220 MW mediante el esquema de autoabastecimiento. DEMEX es una empresa permisionaria de CFE, desarrollando un proyecto eólico de 227.5 MW.

Los parques eólicos de 2012 fueron: Gamesa, ubicada en El Espinal, se estima generará 70 MW bajo el esquema de autoabastecimiento por parte de la española Gamesa. Eoliatec del Istmo, se ubica en los parajes de Santa Rita y San Vicente de Juchitán y El Espinal. Produce 70 MW para el autoabastecimiento. El Proyecto Gamesa ubicado en La Ventosa, con una producción de 140 MW mediante el esquema de autoabastecimiento y Eoliatec del Pacífico, se construye en Santo Domingo Ingenio. Es operada por Eléctrica de Francia (EDF). Con una producción para autoabastecimiento de 140 MW.
Para el 2013 se programaron los proyectos: Gas Natural en la parte sur de Juchitán, con una producción de 250 MW mediante el esquema de autoabastecimiento de Unión Fenosa (hoy Gas Natural). Mareña Renovable, se ubica en la Barra de Santa Teresa, San Dionisio del Mar, Pueblo Viejo y en Santa María del Mar, operada por la española Preneal y producirá bajo el esquema de autoabastecimiento 396 MW de electricidad, y Proyectos Surestes, que se construirán en predios de La Venta (Juchitán) y El Provenir (San Miguel Chimalapa. Es propiedad de Acciona Energía (Española). También en 2013 se instalaron los proyectos La Ventosa III, (Ibedrola-Gamesa), Eoliatec del Pacífico (Ibedrola-Gamesa) y B1 Ni Stipa II Fase III, El Retiro (Cisa Gamesa) según de AMDEE 2010-2013.

Como en otros lugares del país, a pesar del importante desarrollo de estos proyectos se han presentado algunas barreras tecnológicas, regulatorias y sociales para un crecimiento sostenido y un aumento de este tipo de energía que pudiese alcanzar escalas de producción que sustituyeran las fuentes convencionales. Entre las principales barreras tecnológicas esta:

La falta de adaptación de los aerogeneradores a los regímenes de viento específicos de cada zona lo que provoca un deterioro prematuro de los equipos; no se han desarrollado sistemas de protección para los equipos que respondan a las frecuentes descargas atmosféricas en la zona; en general las zonas donde se instalan los aerogeneradores tienen redes eléctricas débiles que requieren ser reforzadas y mejoradas; las redes de transporte y distribución también son débiles y con grandes pérdidas, hay una escasez al问他 de proyectistas y técnicos capacitados.

Desde el punto de vista regulatorio para las empresas representa un inconveniente la imposibilidad de vender libremente la energía generada y tener que establecer contratos de cogeneración para el autoabastecimiento y/o venta a la CFE, asimismo el tener que realizar contratos para el uso de las tierras con una población de propietarios dispersa les redunda en menor eficiencia por tiempos.

Beneficios

- Genera más puestos de trabajo por unidad energética producida.
- Contribución a elevar los niveles de vida y de renta de las regiones menos favorecidas mediante la utilización de recursos locales, generando empleos permanentes a nivel local y creando nuevas oportunidades para la agricultura y la silvicultura.
- Atracción de inversiones a México.
- Competitividad nacional.
- Efecto sobre la industria de bienes de equipo que debe responder a los incrementos de la demanda inducidos sobre el propio sector y que se trasladarán de manera indirecta al resto de los sectores económicos.
- Mejora la garantía de abastecimiento y la infraestructura eléctrica de la zona donde se implantan.
- Mejora de redes de acceso rodado, caminos.
- La generación de impuestos locales y cánones por cesión de terrenos puede convertirse en uno de los principales ingresos de muchas entidades locales afectadas por la construcción de parques eólicos.
- Reducción de las emisiones sin comprometer el desarrollo económico nacional.
- Mitigación del cambio climático Contribuye a la estabilidad climática.
- Reducción de emisiones de Co2.
- No contribuye al agotamiento de reservas de combustibles fósiles, porque se trata de una energía renovable derivada del sol y por lo tanto se renueva de forma continua y es, en consecuencia, inagotable.
- No genera ningún tipo de residuos que necesite un tratamiento posterior.
- Produce una ocupación de terreno reducida y es compatible con otras actividades (agrícolas, ganaderas,...) que habitualmente se dan en el área de emplazamiento.
- Las instalaciones son fácilmente reversibles, pudiéndose retirar sin dejar rastro.
- La energía eólica es renovable y limpia, no contamina porque no se produce por combustión, puede instalarse en zonas desérticas, puede convivir con la ganadería y la agricultura, representa grandes ahorros de combustible a las plantas termoeléctricas, es de rápida instalación y se puede combinar con otros tipos de energía en lugares remotos.
- Reducción de la dependencia de Combustibles fósiles.
- Los niveles de emisiones contaminantes asociados al consumo de combustibles fósiles se reducen en forma proporcional a la generación de energía eólica.
- Considerando que las reservas probadas de hidrocarburos en el país es de 10 años, es necesario buscar el desarrollo de los fuentes alternas de energía.
- El tiempo de construcción es menor con respecto a otras opciones energéticas.
- La energía eólica tiene gran dinamismo por lo que frecuentemente están saliendo al mercado nuevos productos más eficientes con mayor capacidad.
Impactos

- Expertos en aves advierten que muchas especies corren peligro de morir en las aspas gigantes, provocando una reacción ambiental en cadena en todo el continente, ya que son aves migratorias.
- La contaminación de suelos y aguas, como mantos, ríos y lagunas por el derrame y cambio de miles de litros de aceites lubricantes de turbinas, cuyo destino al ser cambiado no se especifica en el Manifiesto de Impacto Ambiental (MIA) de proyectos.
- La pérdida irreparable de vegetación, los proyectos no permiten la existencia de árboles de más de tres metros de altura, reduciéndose el hábitat para todo tipo de fauna.
- El daño considerable a los habitantes de las comunidades próximas a los parques industriales eólicos debido al incremento considerable en los niveles de ruido electromagnético provocado por decenas de aerogeneradores trabajando a la vez.
- El periódico La Jornada del 27 de Octubre 2013, plantea que los contratos se realizan en condiciones de desventaja para los propietarios, porque las empresas se hacen del derecho de posesión de la tierra por 30 años, con posibilidades de renovarse otros 30, y apropiarse de gran parte de las ganancias generadas por los parques eólicos, al fijar los montos por el pago de la renta de cada hectárea arrendada.
- Como el 60% de la zona son analfabetos, los inversionistas se aprovechan para cerrar contratos ventajosos, ya que hacen acuerdos de buena fe, engañando a los indígenas para firmarlos y posteriormente actuar de manera unilateral pagando un valor por debajo de lo que ganaría un agricultor por el uso de su tierra para otras actividades [http://www.jornada.unam.mx/2013/10/27/politica/003n1pol].
- Disminución de oferta alimenticia.
- Pérdida de vientos favorables en uso de térmicas o vientos de laderas.
- Alteración de las rutinas diarias de vuelo.
- Alteración de áreas de dispersión de individuos generalmente jóvenes.
- La fluctuación en la intensidad del viento produce apagones y daños.
- Alteraciones Paisajísticas.
- Las grandes empresas productoras de energía eólica son beneficiarias de las leyes y acuerdos promovidos por el gobierno federal.
- No se toma en cuenta a las comunidades locales y beneficiar únicamente a un grupo de poderosas transnacionales.
- La afectación de paisajes y la visibilidad de la Sierra de Tolistoque o Sierra Atravesada, de la planicie y de las lagunas Superior e Inferior del Mar Interior del Istmo.
- La pérdida irreparable de vegetación, el proyecto no permite la existencia de árboles de más de tres metros de altura, reduciéndose el hábitat para todo tipo de fauna.
- La falta de generación de empleos suficientes, estables y permanentes, en su fase operativa.
- La irreparable muerte por colisión de aves y murciélagos contra las aspas de las torres, dada la importancia de la región del Istmo en el ecosistema global por ser la ruta migratoria de aves más importante del mundo, como se señala en el propio Manifiesto de Impacto Ambiental (MIA) del proyecto “La Venta II”.

Los entrevistados dijeron que las empresas con proyectos eólicos estaban realizando algunas actividades de beneficio social como: pavimentación de las calles, otorgan dinero a las escuelas y construyen escuelas y centros comunitarios para impartir cursos a la juventud. Un ejidatario de Juchitan Oaxaca nos informó que firmó un contrato por 30 años para arrendar sus 20 hectáreas con un pago de $220 000.00 (doscientos veinte mil pesos anuales), pero que otros ejidatarios que no firmaron contrato les pagan por producción y no ha sido redituable, ya que sólo les pagan cuando los aerogeneradores trabajan. El ejidatario firmó el contrato con la empresa porque le ofreció un pago más alto que la (CFE). Le pagan $2 000 por hectárea y en el terreno donde no está el aerogenerador lo ocupa para el ganado o para sembrar, y comentó que recibe un poco más por tonelada de maíz o de sorgo sembrado que por el arrendamiento de su tierra.

En la región del Istmo algunas autoridades y empresas han violado los derechos de los pueblos indígenas zapotecas al ocultarles información. Actuamente se quiere legalizar el despojo, es por eso, que muchos comuneros del Istmo interpusieron amparos ante el juzgado 6º, por no aplicar el convenio 169 de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo (OIT).

Conclusiones

No estamos en contra de la tecnología para generar energía mediante las fuentes renovables; pero sí rechazamos su uso a favor del mero lucro de las empresas y en detrimento de los pueblos y de su patrimonio biocultural.

Se les paga a los ejidatarios por el arrendamiento de sus tierras entre 1/5 y 1/8 parte de lo que pagan en Países Ricos. En México el pago de hectárea arrendada es de los más bajos a nivel mundial.
Los contratos se hacen a 30 años. No se generan un número importante de empleos para la población local.

La destrucción del hábitat y de la diversidad como consecuencia de la construcción de los parques eólicos.

El parque eólico de La Venta II ocasionó la muerte de unos 9900 ejemplares de animales principalmente aves y murciélagos al colisionar con las aspas de las 98 turbinas aerogeneradoras del parque. Ahí cruzan más de 12 millones de ejemplares al año.

La generación de residuos peligrosos (aceites y lubricantes que se desechan de los aerogeneradores) contamina la tierra y el agua principalmente en las zonas de pesca de las llamadas lagunas.

Muchos de los contratos han sido obtenidos mediante engaño a los pobladores y sin informarles de los daños ecológicos, como lo es el ruido, por lo tanto, es necesaria la creación de una norma que regule los niveles de ruido emitidos por las aspas de los generadores de energía eólica.

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The Process of Motivation through the Wages in Small and Medium-sized Enterprises

Introduction

Providing effective management is the key responsibility of the owner of a small enterprise. Motivation process comprises of a lot of factors, which as a coherent whole, ought to ensure the attainment of the set goals. People are the greatest asset of an organization. Thanks to the employees, their work and determination, the enterprise can achieve success and attain its goals. Due to their important role, the employees ought to be encouraged to do their job with proper remuneration and other motivational tools.

The ability to implement effective motivational processes constitutes the basis of the successful management of an organization. Managers are conscious of how important a motivated employee is for carrying out the tasks of both a team and the whole organization.

This problem is visible in all businesses branches. The awareness of how important every single motivated employee is in fulfilling the tasks of a team and the whole enterprise, results in seeking new ways of motivating employees.

A manager, whose responsibility is to manage an enterprise successfully ought to pay attention to the fundamental aspects of motivation and obtain the knowledge concerning the implemented methods of motivation and on this basis create their own motivational system adjusted to the employees.
The essence of human resource management

Human resource management (HRM) is concerned with recruitment planning, appointing candidates to particular posts (recruitment and selection), induction process, performance appraisals of employees and managers, their motivation and development, and creating proper interpersonal relationships in an organization, especially between the managers and the employees [Zając 2007, p. 14].

In practice, the terms “human resource management” and ”personnel management” are frequently used interchangeably. In fact, both terms refer to the developed personnel function in organizations. However, HRM highlights treating employees as an asset of a company. The common aspects of human resource management and personnel management are:

- Both human resource management and personnel management represent personnel function.
- They are treated as synonymous by practitioners.
- They apply the same methods and techniques, the only difference may refer to the frequency of their application.
- They strive at reconciling the individual and organizational interests.

The most important differences between human resource management and personnel management are as follows:

- Human resource management has a strategic function, whereas personnel management is of an operational and tactic nature.
- Human resource management emphasises the importance of the unity of an organisation and the employees, and regards a business entity as a whole, while personnel management distinguishes different functional spheres of the activity of an enterprise.
- Personnel management focused on the methods and techniques leading to the effectiveness improvement. They were mainly applied at the level of specialists. Human resource management, on the other hand, refers mainly to managerial decisions on lower, medium (team management, project management) and higher levels (management of a department, function or an organization) [Sułkowski 2001, p. 16].

In general, the aim of human resource management is to facilitate the success of an enterprise thanks to its employees. To be more precise, the aims of human resource management can be illustrated as follows:

- Providing the variety of promotion-related tasks concerning the goals of an enterprise, constituting the parts of an enterprise management process.
- Obtaining and retaining qualified, engaged, and motivated employees.
- Enhancing and developing people’s primal capabilities, potential, and the ability to find employment – providing training and continuous development opportunities.

- Creating the environment enabling effective and harmonious relations between management and employees, as well as improving mutual trust.

- Creating the environment enabling teamwork and flexibility.

- Helping to create balance and adapting to the needs of different interest groups such as: owners, government agencies or trustees, management, suppliers, customers, and the general public.

- Ensuring that employees are valued and rewarded for their work and achievements.

- Taking into account different needs of particular individuals and groups of employees concerning their work style and aspirations.

- Ensuring equal opportunities.

- Applying ethical management approach towards employees, based on the concern for people, fairness, and transparency.

- Maintaining and refining the physical and mental well-being of employees [Armstrong 2004, pp. 19–20].

In a micro-enterprise hiring up to a dozen or so employees, all their problems are dealt with by one person – a chief executive officer (CEO).

A CEO employs and dismisses employees, maintains personal files, determines wages, plans holidays, etc. A trusted employee, as well as specialized external companies may also deal with some issues related to the personnel.

In a slightly bigger enterprise, employing up to a few dozen employees, personnel is divided into a few organisational units. Personnel issues of the entire enterprise are dealt with by a CEO, while each organizational unit manager is in charge of some personnel decisions and other aspects concerning their subordinates (e.g. conducting appraisals and trainings and administering rewards and punishments). A CEO manages the human resources of an enterprise with a specialised post – a personnel officer.

In medium-sized enterprises, the role of a CEO is limited to determining the personnel policies and recruitment strategy, and making key personnel decisions. Middle and low level managers make some decisions individually and perform the duties concerning their subordinates. A human resources manager makes the decisions of a lower importance. Human resources department is directly subordinate to a CEO. It comprises of a human resources manager and from one up to a few subordinate specialists. These are mainly: human resources specialist, payroll specialist, social affairs specialist, and training specialist.
A medium-sized enterprise ought to have their own occupational health and safety service subject to a CEO or a member of the management body, which may be supported by internal units e.g. task and work teams or external units i.e. consulting companies, training companies, etc. [Pawlak 2003, pp. 36–38].

Given the aforementioned understanding of human resources, a following definition can be formed: "Human resource management constitutes a current concept of fulfilling the personnel function of an organization, which consists in adjusting the features of character of the human resources to the goals of an organization, which are in compliance with the needs of employees in particular internal and external conditions”.

When considering HRM in small and medium-sized enterprises, one should consider who carries out these tasks in the organizations. For an obvious reason, in small enterprises there are not any units dealing with personnel aspects. The specialists dealing with this area of management appear as the scale of the venture increases. In case an enterprise does not have a person in charge of personnel, most frequently this function is fulfilled by the owner, who deals with all the related activities.

Small and medium-sized enterprises hire relatively few employees. As a result, particular employees are obliged to carry out different tasks, which in bigger organizations may be entrusted to specialists. The very common tasks, carried out by external companies on large scale, are bookkeeping and legal services.

The human resources consulting companies help small enterprises in all the aspects of personnel management. As a result, small companies streamline their recruitment process and the professional development of their employees. The awareness of the importance of human resources management motivates the entrepreneurs to use the services in this respect [Karwiński in: Król, Ludwiczyński (ed.) 2006, pp. 595–596].

The essence of motivating

Motivating is a set of forces, influencing an individual to act in a particular way [Sreers, Porter 1991]. According to Z. Jasiński, motivating consists in influencing people with different means and forms in a way, that their activities are similar to the expectations of a motivator, and lead to accomplishing the set tasks [Jasiński 1998, p. 16].

The term “motivation” stems from the Latin word “movere”, which literally means to move or propel. Etymologically, motivation is strictly connected with energy and stimulating toward a spectacular action. Currently, “to motivate” means to “justify the need of some action with arguments, encourage to action, urge”. Motivation is frequently referred to as the set of factors indu-
cing an intentional act, an intermediary process, or an internal state inspiring to action [Ściobiorek 2004, p. 118].

Motivating is the process of a conscious and intentional influence on people's behaviour via creating the means and enabling the fulfilment of their value systems and expectations to achieve the motivator's aims [Borkowska, p. 11].

Motivation comprises of series of single motives, but it is not a simple sum thereof. It is an incentive to action leading to the achievement of particular goals. A motive, as an element of motivation, is an internal impulse initiating an action. Motives are based on the needs conditioning the human behaviour aiming at their satisfaction.

Motivation in the workplace is a relatively constant readiness of a human for the behaviour aimed at the fulfilment of the values by their own work, and satisfying the needs. It is an activating process which makes a person want to satisfy their needs in the long term by the achievement of organizational tasks related to their work [Bartkowiak 1997, p. 119].

Motivation directing people's activities constitutes a process regulating human activities in a way resulting in achieving a particular result or goal [Penc 1996, p. 136].

An aspect which interests us most in human resource management is motivation in the workplace. This term refers to intrinsic and extrinsic determinants of behaviour at work.

Two basic approaches to motivation in the workplace may be distinguished from this perspective:

- attributive approach,
- functional approach.

Motivation, in attributive terms, is a process determining the behaviour of employees in the process of working, influencing their decisions on taking up work, their involvement in performing the tasks, as well as ceasing to work [Pocztowski 2007, pp. 202–203].

Motivating, in functional terms, could be described as motivating, i.e. intentional and deliberate influence on people's behaviour at work, using the knowledge of the subjects determining its factors. According to this approach, motivation is one of the comprehensive management functions [Pocztowski 2007, pp. 202–203].

Motivation comprises of intrinsic and extrinsic factors which are related. They interact and therefore influence people's behaviour. Motivation can be therefore illustrated as a process, in which an employee:

- Is conscious of their unsatisfied needs.
- Recognises the circumstances and the ability of satisfaction thereof.
- Takes actions which are goal-oriented.
- Achieves the fixed level of their performance, which is assessed.
- Obtains rewards (punishments), which fulfil or do not fulfil their needs.
- Evaluates the level of needs satisfaction, which results in arousing new needs or modifying the existing ones [Pocztowski 2007, pp. 202–203].

Diagram 1 illustrates the process of motivation.

**Diagram 1. The basic process of motivation**

![Diagram of the basic process of motivation]


**Remuneration as a motivational tool/ the motivational function of remuneration**

Remuneration acts as a motivator, since it is a basic tool motivating employees to achieve the results and the performance, which reach the employer’s expectations.

The principles of remuneration should therefore encourage employees to achieve better results i.e. enhance their qualifications, undertake more difficult tasks, be loyal to the company, etc. As a result, the employees achieve better results, therefore their remuneration correlates the interests of employees and the employers.

A properly designed reward system significantly increases the chances of an organization to achieve its business objectives. In contrast, a faulty reward system and the mistakes of management concerning the remuneration of particular employees lower their morale and have a destructive effect on the whole business activity [Kordaszewski 1972, p. 19].

Traditionally, remuneration constituted, and in many cases – still constitutes, the most important group of motivating factors. Remuneration is the financial resource received by an employee in exchange for their professional activity, both stipulated and not stipulated in an employment contract. The
following main forms of remuneration ought to be distinguished: salaries, bonuses, employee awards and fringe benefits (pension insurance, health insurance, retirement and disability package and others) [Gick, Tarczyńska 1999, pp. 268–269].

The term “remuneration” may be basically understood in two ways- in a narrower and a broader sense. The former refers to remuneration of work, the latter to any forms of benefits of an enterprise in favour of an employee, in which the entities are related not only under an employment contract. In a narrower sense the term “remuneration” is followed by a determiner “for work”, in a broader sense such a determiner is not applied. The main qualities of the remuneration for work are as follows:

- It constitutes the obligation of an employer under an employment relationship.
- An employer, not any other entity, is obliged to pay remuneration [Pawlak 2003, pp. 237–238].

From the perspective of an organization, the aims of a detailed payroll management are:

- Playing an important role in conveying information about what qualities are valued by an organisation and what effects and standards are required from its employees.
- Encouraging the behaviour, which contributes to attaining the goals of an organisation, taking into account key effectiveness factors, which refer to defining a proper behaviour and the methods of promoting it via appropriate reward systems.
- Fostering the crucial values of an enterprise such as: quality, teamwork, innovation, customer care, efficiency, and responsiveness.
- Maximizing the results while minimizing the costs – the steps concerning the remuneration should not be taken and the practice of remuneration should not be cultivated, unless it increases the added value.

From the employees’ perspective, a reward system ought to:

- Treat the employees as interest groups, who have the right to create the reward systems.
- Meet their expectations regarding equal and fair treatment, in accordance with their contribution to work.
- Be transparent – people ought to know what reward system is applied in an organisation, and what their remuneration will depend on [Armstrong 2004, pp. 503–504].

The goals are achieved provided that:
The strategies of a company referring to financial results, market share, product development, customer care, and the organization development (cultural and structural change) are developed.

The reward system facilitates the consistent implementation of remuneration strategies, allowing the proper adjustment to the changing needs of a company.

The employees are rewarded in accordance with their contributions, skills, and competences.

The reward system is transparent, and the employees are treated as interest groups, which can participate in creating the elements of the system. They can also directly influence the interests and participate in developing the reward systems.

The strategies enhance mutual trust and partnership, leading to the increased standards.

The reward system highlights the need of fairness and openness. We are conscious of the fact that due to the market pressures, creating an absolutely fair system is impossible.

Line managers, whose responsibility is to manage reward systems within their budget in compliance with general guidelines, bear a wide scope of responsibility.

Spending money on remuneration is aimed at achieving the best results.

The initiatives concerning remuneration are taken provided that the relations with other business and human resource operations have been examined. It results in an integral approach aiming at the mutual support of the processes [Armstrong 2004, pp. 503–504].

The following elements comprise remuneration in organizations:

- Basic salary,
- Flexible remuneration (bonuses and awards),
- Other contributions,
- Wage incentives,
- Non-wage material incentives,
- The principles of remuneration (bonus and motivation systems, tariff system, and employee classifications) [Sułkowski 2001, p. 68].

Employee remuneration is a crucial aspect of HRM which combines the interests of different groups i.e. an organization, employees, trade unions, and other stakeholders. In human resource management, remuneration is related to a few aspects such as: human capital development and employee appraisal. It is a very important motivational tool, since it ought to enco-
urge people to work for a particular organization. It should also inspire the employees to remain employed in a company, achieve the best results, and encourage to enhance their qualifications, which will consequently contribute to the satisfactory results of the whole company. The achievable level and the structure of remuneration are the results of the deliberate formation of the remuneration system, in compliance with the current remuneration strategy. All organizations design their remuneration strategy and establish the rules, tools, and institutional solutions, as well as the regulatory mechanisms of remuneration, which finally comprise an individual reward system, aiming at the effective support of the achievement of organizational goals [Urbaniak, Bohdziewicz 2009, pp. 92–93].

Remuneration is receivables, which are due for the accomplished work (paid in arrears) or the work which is about to be accomplished (paid in advance) in accordance with the agreed conditions. It may be fixed or flexible. The fixed remuneration does not directly depend on the results of work of employees, a group, or an organization. Flexible remuneration, in contrast, may increase or decrease depending on the changes regarding its formation basis, for instance individual or group results [Król, Ludwiczyński 2006, p. 354].

Remuneration consists of two parts i.e. fixed and flexible. Each part plays an established role in a reward system. The structure of remuneration is shaped in an intended manner, according to the applied remuneration strategy. The changes visible in the approach to remuneration illustrate current increases in the flexible part of remuneration including awards and bonuses. Therefore the relationship between remuneration and the effects of individual and group work improves.

An important aspect, which is a part of flexible remuneration, is the generic structure of bonuses and awards. Bonuses and awards are short-term factors, in which the dependence on the results of tasks carried out within not more than a year is important.

The bonus on top of the salary is most frequently a fixed component guaranteed by law, which goes to employees in cash. It often takes a material form, as well. Due to their diversity, they meet different needs and expectations of the employees, who regard them as fringe benefits, arising from work for a particular employer [Urbaniak, Bohdziewicz 2009, pp. 92–93, 107, 111].

Besides basic salary, awards, bonuses, and benefits constitute main elements of remuneration. As far as the bonuses are concerned, two kinds may be distinguished. One is a recognition benefit, based on the evaluation of the employee’s efficiency, the other is a periodic bonus. The respondents have emphasised the motivational importance of reward system several times, which is also visible in that case.
Summary

Rewardsing employees in an enterprise may influence their performance and motivation, therefore the managers should understand and appreciate its importance. Reward systems are intrinsically related to the theory of motivation and are based on the expectancy theory. The expected relation between an effort and the results is considerably influenced by a performance appraisal of an employee, who is usually an element of a reward system. An employee will be willing to make an additional effort provided that they know that the desired results will be followed by a reward. Finally, in compliance with the expectancy theory, all rewards have different value for particular individuals. One may be more interested in a promotion, the other may choose a different reward [Griffin, pp. 543–544].

Remuneration as the method of determining the behaviours and attitudes of employees in compliance with the expectations of an employer, represents a motivational function. The motivation will depend on both the amount and the internal structure and its relationship with the results of the employees. Remuneration enables an organization to influence particular employees and managers internally and create the image on a local market [Zając 2007, p. 143].

All things considered, the main objectives of human resource management are recruitment planning, employees’ selection, induction, appraisal, and motivating. The motivation process is complex and the motivation theories do not always coincide with everyday life. Remuneration constitutes an important motive and it comprises of a basic salary, bonuses, and tangible and intangible rewards.

A well-functioning motivation system is of a great importance especially in small enterprises, which naturally have serious problems in that respect. Therefore it is necessary to establish clear rules, which will be obeyed in an organization. The owner managing an enterprise plays the most important role here, they should be a leader and a guarantor of the values of a company. It is the way to the achievement of a success of both an enterprise and its employees.

An effective motivation system leads to the satisfaction of an employee with their work, facilitates the communication with an employer and other employees. It ensures the achievement of a market success of an organization, the creation of unique elements of a competitive advantage, and flexibility enabling a quick reaction to the need of the implementation of changes in an organization.
The Process of Motivation through the Wages in Small...

Bibliography


Desafíos en la Organización y en la Gestión de las Cooperativas de Pequeños Productores Rurales

Introducción

El cooperativismo es visto como una de las principales alternativas para organizar la producción y en el medio rural, los productores rurales reconocen que la unión del grupo es una de las mejores formas de encontrar solución a los problemas de sus unidades productivas. A pesar de la importancia que la organización colectiva representa para el fortalecimiento de los pequeños productores rurales, diversos estudios han demostrado que las cooperativas presentan importantes debilidades en lo que se refiere a equilibrar los diferentes niveles de interés de sus asociados: el económico, el social y el político, principalmente en lo que respecta a las prácticas y estrategias de gestión adoptadas. Desde el punto de vista académico, surgen varias inquietudes, tales como: ¿Hasta qué punto las características específicas de las cooperativas influyen en su competitividad? ¿Cuáles son los factores que deben ser considerados en la gestión de las cooperativas para que sean competitivas sin dejar de ser cooperativas?

Este trabajo se enfoca las estrategias adoptadas por las cooperativas de pequeños productores rurales, en el contexto de asentamientos rurales, con el objetivo de analizar las influencias del entorno organizacional y de la participación social en las decisiones y en la eficacia económica y social de estas organizaciones. El debate aquí realizado tiene como propósito defender que el fortalecimiento de la competitividad de las cooperativas rurales depende de un modelo de gestión que sea apropiado para este tipo de organizaciones, sin, no obstante, faltar el respeto a los principios cooperativista, que representan líneas orientadoras de la práctica del cooperativismo en el mundo.
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Conceptos y características de la organización cooperativa

La cooperación para Drimer y Drimer [1991], es simplemente el ejercicio o la consecuencia de cooperar, es lo mismo que decir “la acción o el efecto de dos o más personas que colaboran entre sí para la realización de una tarea común o la obtención de una misma finalidad”. En Brasil, la Ley Nº 5.764/71 define a las cooperativas como “Sociedades de personas, con forma y naturaleza jurídica propias, de naturaleza civil no sujetas a quiebra, constituidas para prestar servicios a los asociados (...”)”. Estas definiciones nos llevan a entender que cooperativa es una empresa con características especiales: es una sociedad de personas que prestan servicios a estas mismas personas, es una sociedad de personas y non de capital y la acción colectiva sustituirá a la individual. Otra característica en la cooperativa, es la doble cualidad de los asociados que son, al mismo tiempo, propietarios y también, beneficiarios de los servicios producidos en la cooperativa.

De Masy [1980] trata el tema con un enfoque socioeconómico cuando destaca los siguientes elementos básicos de la sociedad cooperativa, como una agrupación de personas unidas por un interés común y argumenta también que:

Esta agrupación desarrolla actividades relacionadas con el progreso económico de sus asociados a través de la creación de una empresa de carácter permanente, similar a cualquier unidad económica que ofrece, por ejemplo, servicios comerciales, bancarios, agrícolas [De Masy 1980, p. 14].

En esta situación, es claro el carácter instrumental de la sociedad cooperativa, donde se encuentra presente el esfuerzo técnico del trabajo colectivo unido al interés por el progreso económico de los asociados. No se trata tampoco de una alternativa de negocio transitorio o esporádico, sino de un emprendimiento donde existe el deseo de perpetuidad o permanencia; o sea, una vez organizada la cooperativa por determinado grupo de personas que tengan intereses y afinidades comunes, se espera como resultado concreto de su operatividad el progreso económico de los agentes que participan en ella, como sucede en cualquier otro tipo de sociedad de negocios.

Se observa que las cooperativas son organizaciones empresariales, no obstante, poseen características que la diferencian de las demás sociedades de capital donde inicialmente se considera el agregado de capital y el voto es proporcional al capital invertido en el negocio. Una vez constituida la cooperativa, sus asociados toman decisiones y asumen riesgos que son decididos por medio del voto y todos, sin excepción, poseen los mismos derechos y las mismas obligaciones.
Discutiendo las tentativas teóricas de definir un concepto ideal para la cooperativa, Valadares [2006] argumenta que, se vuelve inviable pretender una definición concisa para el término “cooperativa”. En otras palabras, el autor argumenta que existe un número excesivo de aspectos que deben ser considerados y que no cabrían en una única frase. Además de esto, percibo que no existe acuerdo entre los teóricos sobre todos os aspectos relevantes que caracterizan a una cooperativa. Son relacionados por el autor tres elementos encontrados en la mayoría de las definiciones de cooperativa y que son de importancia vital para el reconocimiento de las mismas como alternativa para el progreso económico de sus asociados. En primer lugar, la cooperación es una actividad económica. En segundo lugar, esta actividad es dirigida hacia la satisfacción de las necesidades comunes de las personas en ella involucradas; y, finalmente, la organización cooperativa es controlada por los miembros asociados.

RESUMEN METODOLÓGICO

El estudio utilizó del abordaje metodológico descriptivo, cualitativo y cuantitativo. Para los datos secundarios, el estudio incluye la investigación bibliográfica y documental para comprender e interpretar mejor su contexto.

El universo de la investigación corresponde a las organizaciones cooperativas de trabajadores rurales familiares, circunscritas en el sistema cooperativista en el municipio de Tangará da Serra MT, Brasil. La región es marcada por la práctica de la agropecuaria extensiva y con un número significativo de agricultores familiares que viven en asentamientos rurales. Mediante el registro de inmuebles rurales del Instituto Nacional de Colonización y Reforma Agraria – INCRA, el área rural del municipio está compuesto por 1.670 establecimientos; de estos el 69% posee hasta 20 hectáreas, confirmando que se trata de una estructura agraria caracterizada por pequeñas propiedades agrícolas.

En este escenario, se identificaron 3 (tres) cooperativas, con localizaciones geográficas y posicionamientos políticos y mercadológicos distintos: la primera forma da por productores asentados por el Movimiento de los Sin Tierra (MST); la segunda, formada por productores rurales beneficiados por el Programa Nacional de Crédito Fundiario (PNCF) y, una tercera cooperativa, constituida por una mezcla de productores rurales oriundos de asentamientos y de comunidades tradicionales y los no vinculados a los programas gubernamentales. Juntas estas organizaciones cooperativas, reúnen a 232 asociados. De esta población, fueron entrevistadas 131 personas, siendo: 18 miembros del directorio y 116 asociados, correspondiendo al 56% del total de asociados. Fue solicitado por los entrevistados, que a fines de mantener el secreto, fuese mantenido el anonimato de las cooperativas. De este modo, se...
decidió denominarlas Cooperativa Tangará 01, a aquella formada en el asentamiento del MST, Cooperativa Tangará 2, a aquella organizada por productores del PNCF y Cooperativa Tangará 3, a aquella constituída por productores de las comunidades rurales convencionales.

Para la recolección de los datos fueron utilizados los siguientes instrumentos de investigación: entrevistas con preguntas previamente estructuradas y anotaciones de comentarios de los entrevistados y la observación directa. Estos instrumentos de investigación fueron preparados con el objetivo de captar la información que permitió poner a prueba las hipótesis del trabajo. Los datos caracterizados como secundarios fueron recabados junto a las organizaciones investigadas y se buscó la información relacionada con el origen e implementación de las organizaciones cooperativas en actas de reuniones y demás informes, tales como estatutos, reglamentos internos, entre otros, para comprender e interpretar mejor su contexto. También fue definida como descriptiva una vez que describe las características específicas de la realidad que está envuelto al fenómeno estudiado. A partir de estos datos, se desarrolló el análisis externo del ambiente, lo que nos permitió identificar las amenazas y oportunidades a las que están expuestas las cooperativas. Al mismo tiempo, se buscó conocer y analizar el conocimiento de los asociados en relación a los principios doctrinarios y el modelo de gestión practicado y, finalmente, evidenciar los puntos fuertes y débiles de las cooperativas bajo estudio.

DISCUSIÓN DE LOS DATOS

Características de los socios de las Cooperativas Investigadas

En el intento por relevar las opiniones de los socios al respecto de los principios doctrinarios que rigen el cooperativismo y también acerca del modelo de gestión de las cooperativas de la cual participan, fue formulada y puesta en práctica la parte cuantitativa de la investigación. Se distribuyeron 185 encuestas, de las cuales 41 se destinaron a los asociados de la cooperativa Tangará-1, 48 a los asociados de la cooperativa Tangará – 2 y 96 a los socios de la cooperativa Tangará – 3. En total 131 encuestas fueron devueltas y consideradas válidas para ese análisis (79,7%) que formaron parte de la muestra que se constituyó de la siguiente manera: 26 encuestados son socios de la cooperativa Tangará – 1, 48 de la cooperativa Tangará – 2 y 57 de la cooperativa Tangará – 3.

En relación a los datos personales, 99 encuestados eran hombres (76%) y 32 mujeres (24%). Esta diferencia, indirectamente, refleja la dificultad de acceso de la mujer a la tierra y, al mismo tiempo, refuerza el predominio del orden patriarcal en el medio rural. En cuanto a la edad de los encuestados, es bastante heterogénea, no obstante, se calculó que la edad promedio es de 49
años, con un margen mínimo de 23 años y una máxima de 75. Estos datos constatan el envejecimiento del trabajador asentado e, inclusive, que existe un gran déficit en la mano de obra local. No obstante, no se haya buscado saber el número de hijos de cada familia, mediante las observaciones en reuniones y demás momentos de contacto con la comunidad, fue posible percibir que es pequeño el número de jóvenes involucrados en las cuestiones de la comunidad y en las relaciones con la cooperativa.

De esta manera, sobresale un importante punto de reflexión: ¿por qué los jóvenes no se incorporan a los emprendimientos familiares rurales y no participan de las cooperativas? Lo que se observa en la práctica es que el joven al alcanzar la mayoría de edad, sale de casa para buscar una ocupación en el mercado de trabajo urbano. En cuanto al nivel de escolaridad, aproximadamente el 69% de los encuestados posee formación básica y solamente el 7% posee formación media completa. Los demás no concluyeron los estudios o son analfabetos. Denotase, por lo tanto, una baja formación escolar de los socios, lo que puede ser entendido como consecuencia del acceso limitado del trabajador a la enseñanza durante el periodo de edad escolar.

Considerando la organización social y conocimientos sobre cooperativismo, el 73% de los encuestados afirmaron participar solamente en una cooperativa, mientras que el 23% restante se encuentran afiliados a otra cooperativa. Sin embargo, no fue indagado el motivo por el cual poseen diferentes afiliaciones o el segmento de la otra cooperativa, lo que puede suponer es que se trata de afiliaciones en cooperativas de crédito, cuya actuación es fuerte entre los pequeños productores rurales en la región de Tangará da Serra MT.

En cuanto al tiempo de filiación, el 50% de los encuestados posee una antigüedad promedio en las cooperativas estudiadas de 3 años. Este dato es compatible con la historia reciente de las cooperativas de pequeños productores rurales en Tangará da Serra MT. El principal motivo señalado por 55 de los encuestados para la adhesión a la cooperativa fue la “sugerencia de los órganos públicos”, hecho que confirma la influencia de órganos externos en la formación de las cooperativas investigadas con reflejos sobre la autonomía de las mismas para establecer políticas internas. En segundo lugar, se encuentra el desempleo como factor motivador para que los encuestados ingresen a la cooperativa, demostrando que el cooperativismo representa la posibilidad para minimizar las dificultades de estas personas para obtener el sustento de sus familias.

Al analizar el nivel de desarrollo de los encuestados con su cooperativa, se constató que el 78% de estos son socios fundadores. El 82% de los encuestados conocen el estatuto y el 18% no posee conocimiento de los derechos, deberes y obligaciones establecidos en el estatuto. Este es un resultado preocupante que refleja la ausencia del Consejo Educativo, así como la falta de eficacia por parte del los directivos en el momento de admitir nuevos asociados.
La gran mayoría (86%) de los encuestados posee conocimiento sobre los miembros que componen el Consejo de Administración de la cooperativa a la que pertenecen. Sin conocer los principios y procesos de gestión, los resultados se hacen más dificultosos, estas evidencias refuerzan la importancia del conocimiento para transformar la realidad de las organizaciones cooperativas.

Considerando la importancia de evaluar las opiniones de los asociados al respecto de cuestiones conceptuales sobre el cooperativismo, principios doctrinarios y gestión de las cooperativas, se llevó a cabo un análisis de concordancia. Los resultados demostraron que la mayoría de los encuestados considera que no posee conocimientos suficientes acerca de la naturaleza del movimiento cooperativista, o sea, los encuestados no poseen una clara noción sobre los principales aspectos que diferencian a las cooperativas de los demás tipos de organizaciones y sobre la base doctrinaria que sustenta al cooperativismo. Tal situación contribuye con una visión estrecha sobre las organizaciones cooperativas y su importancia para los pequeños productores rurales. En este sentido, constatase que los encuestados no se encuentran bien preparados intelectualmente para interactuar interna y eternamente en las cooperativas a las que pertenecen, principalmente en lo que se refiere a la interpretación y practica de los principios básicos del cooperativismo, como por ejemplo, la admisión de asociados, administración del capital social, fondos de reservas, distribución de las utilidades netas, entre otros, lo que puede ser causa, inclusive, del desinterés de los socios en asumir cargos directivos en las cooperativas.

No obstante los datos señalen limitaciones en cuanto a la educación cooperativista, en la opinión de la mayoría de los encuestados, la administración de las cooperativas debe ser dirigida por los propios asociados, con actualización del Consejo Directivo al final de cada mandato. Sin embargo, se percibe que existe divergencia en la comprensión de los entrevistados acerca de la participación en el proceso decisorio de las cooperativas. Este posicionamiento hiere los principios de la gestión democrática y de participación económica que garantizan iguales derechos independientemente de la situación económica, política o social de cada asociado dentro y fuera de la cooperativa.

En lo que se refiere a la opinión de los asociados acerca de la gestión de las cooperativas analizadas, existe un elevado nivel de concordancia entre los encuestados acerca de la ausencia de un planeamiento de largo plazo, del pequeño número de asambleas realizadas y de la participación ínfima de los asociados en estas reuniones. En contraposición, la percepción de la autogestión, en este grupo de variables, la mayoría de los encuestados opinó favorablemente a la contratación de terceros para administrar la cooperativa como una forma de hacer más eficiente la misma. Esta opinión es perfectamente comprensible desde el punto de vista de las funciones operativas o técnicas,
como por ejemplo, la contabilidad gerencial, la gestión de las personas, entre otras, que exigen un número mínimo de conocimientos técnicos; no obstante, los cargos directivos del Consejo de Administración y el de Fiscalización, deben ser ocupados exclusivamente por los socios, bajo pena de otorgar a terceros el poder que vulnere los derechos de los asociados.

De modo general, las variables que presentan un menor grado de concordancia, en la muestra de socios, se encuentran relacionadas con la falta de educación cooperativa y la capacitación de los asociados para asumir funciones administrativas en las cooperativas. Además, se evidencia la falta de visión de largo plazo, percibida en la ausencia de planeamiento estratégico de las cooperativas. Bajo esta premisa, es urgente la implementación, en estas cooperativas, de acciones y sociedades que permitan la formación educativa de sus socios, especialmente, en cuanto al cooperativismo para ampliar el grado de conocimiento y favorecer la capacitación técnica. Se entiende que solamente de esta manera será posible experimentar, en la práctica cotidiana, una mayor integración de las cooperativas y el desarrollo de sujetos más solidarios y participativos.

Buscando entrelazar las respuestas sobre el conocimiento de los socios acerca del cooperativismo con sus acciones prácticas, se obtuvieron los siguientes resultados: 68 (52%) encuestados participaron entre 3 y 5 veces de eventos realizados por las cooperativas en los últimos tres años. La mayoría, 76 encuestados, (58%), se encuentra insatisfecho con las cooperativas, 58 (44%) asociados casi no participa del día a día de la misma y 53 (40%) no encuentran el espacio para ofrecer sugerencias en la gestión de las cooperativas. Estos indicadores justifican el distanciamiento existente entre los socios y los directivos de las cooperativas analizadas.

Al ser indagados acerca de los beneficios proporcionados por la cooperativa, para 57 encuestados (43%) mencionó la comercialización de la producción y 43 (33%) mencionaron el financiamiento bancario. Tal vez una de las mayores fuentes de conflicto en las cooperativas de pequeños productores rurales sean las diferencias de intereses y opiniones. En estos casos, los socios están interesados en los resultados más inmediatos, tales como los retornos por ventas, asistencia técnica y servicio de alquiler de máquinas a bajo precio o sin coste. Por otro lado, la diferencia en los precios y ventajas competitivas solamente se logrará mediante la correcta comprensión de los ideales del cooperativismo, por la unión y fidelidad de los asociados. En cuanto al papel del socio en relación a la cooperativa, 59 entrevistados (45%) se consideran dueños de la misma y 37 (28%) se consideran solamente usuarios. Es importante recordar que al ingresar a la cooperativa, el productor rural asume un doble papel, asociado y usuario, siendo su deber participar en la vida de la cooperativa. Este análisis evidencia un bajo nivel de formación cooperativa...
entre los entrevistados, pudiendo ser el responsable por la escasa participación en las cooperativas analizadas. Por otro lado, demuestra la necesidad de que las cooperativas incluyan en sus prioridades acciones de carácter educativo. Para lograr un cambio real de los valores, se hace necesario buscar nuevos instrumentos que puedan hacerse cargo de este modelo de autogestión.

Análisis de la Gestión en las Cooperativas investigadas

Cuanto a los aspectos organizacionales, observando las funciones clásicas de la administración, planeamiento, organización, dirección y evaluación los componentes, los factores que más sobresalen y que comprometen la gestión son la estructura organizacional jerarquizada, la ausencia del planeamiento de la producción y de la comercialización, informalidad en las acciones mercadológicas, funcionales y administrativas, el poder de decisión centralizado en lo presidente, ausencia de sistemas de informaciones operacionales e gerenciales. El bajo nivel de capacitación técnica de los dirigentes y el sentimiento de incredulidad en cooperativa, debido a los proyectos anteriores que han fracasado. Por otro lado, el conjunto de informaciones levantadas contribuye para el conocimiento del ambiente interno, en lo cual están insertas las pequeñas cooperativas, la real situación del su funcionamiento, al mismo tiempo en que reúne datos que permiten trazar su identidad organizacional y centrar esfuerzo en la búsqueda de un mejor camino a ser seguido para garantizar la supervivencia y el crecimiento sostenible en el largo plazo de esas organizaciones.

En cuanto al modelo de gestión, las Cooperativas analizadas buscaron apoyarse en el modelo vertical practicado por las cooperativas tradicionales, constituidas por productores de mediano y gran porte, cuya vertiente teórica es el cooperativismo empresarial, además de los resultados de esta investigación apuntan que este modelo no haya sido suficiente para estimular la participación de los socios y generar resultados satisfactorios en los aspectos económico y social de los pequeños productores rurales.

En relación al perfil gerencial de los dirigentes de las cooperativas, se constató que falta de capacitación, especialmente en la gestión de la producción y comercialización, y la poca preocupación con el planeamiento de las actividades organizativas, son factores que asumen importancia crucial para generar competitividad a las cooperativas de pequeños productores rurales. En solo una Cooperativa analizada, se identificó la utilización de los componentes estratégicos, como tentativa de orientar acciones futuras, aunque, esos elementos fueron considerados incipientes y necesitando de ser reelaborados a la luz de los principios cooperativistas. Se atribuye a esa cuestión, en gran parte, por el bajo nivel de educación cooperativa y la no preparación de los dirigentes para la práctica administrativa. Súmese a eso la falta de compromiso y visión estratégica de los demás asociados.
Presionadas por la competencia, por las necesidades de los asociados y por las nuevas exigencias de la gestión administrativa, las cooperativas buscan acceso a canales alternativos de comercialización para ingresar a nuevos mercados, como es el caso del mercado institucional de Alimentos, con todo, sin un análisis más perfeccionado del contexto donde están incluidos no consiguen visualizar las posibilidades ofrecidas por el ambiente externo. Al contrario del sistema de comercialización convencional, los mercados institucionales exigen de las cooperativas relaciones más duraderas con los productores asociados porque los contratos de compras exigen repetición de las entregas de productos por un plazo más largo y alto nivel de compromiso de los asociados con la producción y el ejercicio de la cooperación.

El entorno externo en que actúan las pequeñas Cooperativas Investigadas

En este análisis se buscó comprender los principales aspectos relacionados con la realidad externa de las cooperativas estudiadas. Fueron consideradas oportunidades para las cooperativas situaciones que ellas realmente tienen condiciones de aprovechar considerando sus potencialidades actuales. En cuanto a las amenazas, fueron consideradas las situaciones actuales o futuras que poden influenciar en la actividad de las cooperativas, o fuerzas más allá del control, que, si no se neutralizan, pueden traer desventaja competitiva. El ambiente externo es favorable a las cooperativas investigadas, desde los aspectos económico y social, ya que la agricultura familiar, es importante productora de géneros alimenticios para el abastecimiento del mercado interno en el estado de Mato Grosso. Cuanto al aspecto político, en Brasil hay importantes programas gubernamentales cuya finalidad es promover el desarrollo sustentable de la agricultura familiar. El Mercado local presenta oportunidades para comercialización de los productos de la agricultura familiar, como Agroindustrias procesadoras de Frutas y Leche, los gobiernos locales que son grandes compradores de productos alimenticios para merienda escolar. En el aspecto social, las Cooperativas investigadas están geográficamente, localizadas en región que presenta excelente participación en la composición del PBI nacional y desarrollo social.

Las Amenazas del ambiente externo para a las Cooperativas Investigadas, son caracterizadas por el elevado índice de pobreza en el área rural, debido a la grande cantidad de pequeñas propiedades en los asentamientos y la baja eficiencia económica de la agricultura familiar, justamente por la falta de articulación entre los pequeños productores.

CONSIDERACIONES FINALES

En el caso de las pequeñas cooperativas rurales investigadas, el estudio demostró que no están adecuadas a una gestión compartida y tienen debilidades
para sobrevivir de acuerdo con los nuevos y más rigurosos estándares de eficiencia y competencia en el mercado competitivo. Entre los hechos y tendencias que más interfieren, sobresale la estructura de poder ejercida. Considereando la importancia de establecer y practicar la autogestión en las cooperativas en el medio rural, se hace necesario crear mecanismos de participación e instancias de discusión y deliberación con una comunicación abierta y favorable para compartir, experimentar y estimular la participación activa de sus integrantes en la realización de todas las actividades y en la resolución de las cuestiones económicas, políticas y sociales. En consecuencia, la mayor participación de los asociados conducirá a la obtención de una ventaja competitiva real. Entiendo que las cooperativas serán más atractivas desde el punto de vista económico y social si sus dirigentes ejercieran una gestión eficiente, si los asociados poseyeran una amplia comprensión de la educación cooperativista, sin olvidar las relaciones de fidelidad en el grupo, respetando los principios y valores del cooperativismo. En este caso, queda a cargo de las entidades de apoyo, autoridades municipales, investigadores y profesores universitarios, o por lo menos debería caberles a ellas, la conducción del proceso, la atribución y responsabilidad de capacitación, profesionalización e implementación de acciones prioritarias que promuevan las cooperativas de la “agricultura familiar”, con ajustes y adecuaciones necesarias para el cambio deseado. Además de los desafíos que la ciencia y la tecnología han puesto a las organizaciones, como nuevos instrumentos de gestión y nuevas técnicas para el agregado de valor a los productos, no se puede olvidar que el factor humano sigue siendo el elemento más importante de las organizaciones. Finalmente se hace necesario entender que los desafíos impuestos por el entorno organizacional competitivo y dinámico, solamente podrán ser superados si los asociados líderes o no están dispuestos a buscar actualizaciones conceptuales y prácticas de gerenciamento de las pequeñas cooperativas rurales.

Bibliografía


The Social Role of Family Firms: the Case of the Pelion Healthcare Group

Introduction

The social role of firms is captured in widely known Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) practices. These practices have been developed over times as opposition to purely profit orientation of firms. In addition, CSR does not only evolve from organizational level but is influenced by both changes in social and environmental needs. In fact, many large companies and even nongovernmental organizations (NGO) report social responsibility issues in official documents and statements. In addition, NGOs exhibit social responsibilities in a non-formal ways. These reporting practices influence other companies that follow suit. As a consequence, today’s markets experience an expansion of CSR practices, however they are not homogenous. As these contexts are differently exhibited by countries, CSR policies may differ in its content, however the general approach remains the same. CSR practices may also be shaped by political influence and be present on the political agenda and eventually enforced by law. Industry practices influence also the CSR practices exhibited by firms. As a consequence, Corporate Social Responsibility impacts firms in different ways depending on the complex contextual forces.

Corporate Social Responsibility practices are discretionary for firms thus firms choose a range of practices to implement. This range results from the broad context as mentioned above as well as issues specific to the company.
context. It means that companies may respond to CSR challenges by referring to its mission, values, product, markets, etc. All these factors that influence CSR practices call for a research in the local environment. The authors of this paper have attempted to outline the CSR practice of the Pelion Healthcare Group in its local environment. It is believed that family firms exert an impact on the well-being of local societies therefore we wanted to examine them by referring to the most advanced CSR reporting. In particular, we used as a framework for this examination the Global Reporting on Sustainability and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI).

The outline of CSR in Poland

In January 1990 Poland undertook the transformation reforms and switched from the centrally planned economy toward the market oriented economy. The transformation has aimed at macroeconomic stabilization, currency convertibility and price liberalization as the most challenging efforts. The transformation process has its societal cost due to the rise of unemployment rate which pushed people towards poverty. The Polish government was not able to solve all societal problems resulting from the transformation thus companies begun to lend a hand. In addition, helping poor people became the agenda of companies and philanthropic organizations. Poland is also very rooted in the Catholic religion, and in teachings of John Paul II in particular. The Pope observed on December 6th, 1990 that: “[…] no model of progress that does not take into account the ethical and moral dimensions of economic activity will succeed in winning the hearts of Europe’s people” [John Paul II, 1996].

Gasparski [2005] states that the Polish managers define Corporate Social Responsibility as: to act according to ethical norms (56%), adequate and paid in time wages (55%), transparency (46%), environmental protection (37%), co-operation with all stakeholders (32%), compliance (33%), taking care of those who are in need (16%), creating positive perception of a firm (14%). Therefore, they present a broader view on CSR than the European Commission (COMM 347). Gasparski [2005] also notes that the majority of Polish companies implement CSR practices to associate them with a positive image and brand (72.9%). The remaining reasons include: better relations with the local community (46.5%), to be a good citizen (34.7%), it pays in the long run (30.0%), willingly (25.9%), public opinion pressure (11.8%), other firms do the same (9.4%), to conquer a new market (8.2%), others (1.2%). Remišová et al. [2013, p. 522] researched CSR practices in seven countries, including Poland. They found out that the following criteria are ranked as the most important in CSR provisions:
Customer satisfaction;
Firm profitability, quality of products;
Sales volume, employees’ well-being;
Business partners;
Long-term competitiveness, employees’ development, local community welfare.

In addition, these researchers found that similar criteria are represented in Austria, Czech Republic, Germany and Romania.

There is an expectation that CSR will be encouraged by the state policy, NGOs, local communities, clients and stakeholders. Gasparski [2005] lists the forms of CSR actions undertaken by firms out of which a financial support plays a dominant form (75.3%). Companies also use material support (64.7%), rendering of facilities (38.2%), mutual projects with NGOs (27.1%) and voluntary activities (10.6%).

The Corporate Social Responsibility in Poland is supported immensely by the organization Responsible Business Forum. This organization has increased the awareness of CSR and the expectations of companies that people may have. As a consequence, people may follow the best CSR practices and expect involvement of the neighborhood companies.

Although these activities are different in scope and size, they are extensive and deliver services that meet different societal needs. In addition, they exhibit the serious involvement in Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives.

The case study: The Pelion Healthcare Group

We describe the Pelion Healthcare Group when analyzing a corporate social impact. We have mentioned earlier the Respect Index of socially responsible companies listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange. Pelion belongs to this index as the only one family firm. The importance of being included in the Respect Index was underlined by Jacek Dauenhauer, President of the Management Board of Pelion responsible for the financial strategy [Pelion 2013]: “In 2013, Pelion was included twice in the RESPECT Index and thus made it to the short list of socially responsible market leaders. This sends an important message to investors, confirming our compliance with most exacting CSR standards. It means that we are able to manage our business risks more effectively and that we seek for new areas for the creation of shared value, thereby paving the way towards sustainable market success. We treat our inclusion in the RESPECT Index only as the beginning of a brand new chapter, not as the crowning achievement of our CSR initiatives to date. We are raising the bar even higher and setting new CSR goals to achieve”. In fact, Pelion is the first healthcare company included in this index and the only one from Łódź region.
The Pelion Healthcare Group finds amongst the largest companies operating in the healthcare industry with operations in Poland, Lithuania and United Kingdom. The company has been set up twenty four years ago and coordinates the operations of its subsidiaries: Polska Grupa Farmaceutyczna S.A. (wholesale), Pharmapoint Sp. z o.o. (pre-wholesale), PGF Urtica Sp. z o.o. (hospital supplies), CEPD N.V. (retail), and Pharmalink Sp. z o.o. (services for manufacturers). Pelion joined the Global Compact on July 2, 2012.

As trust in Poland ranks very low and the most recent crisis impacted societies, Pelion decided to define its key stakeholders in a broad sense as: (1) patients, (2) employees, (3) customers (pharmacies), (4) Pelion Healthcare Group Companies, (5) suppliers, (6) contractors, (7) business partners, (8) competitors, (9) market regulators and integrators, (10) capital market participants, (11) control authorities, (12) local communities and local authorities, (13) non-governmental organizations, (14) scientific and academic communities, and (15) media. The company declared to maintain a dialogue with its stakeholders by offering multiple ways of interaction (see Table 1).

Table 1. Key stakeholder groups and communication channels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key stakeholder groups</th>
<th>Forms of dialog and communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patients</td>
<td>Bi-monthly „Dbam o Zdrowie“ (Caring for my Health), quarterly „Magazyn 60+“ (60+ Magazine) Patient programs Newsletters Websites E-mail, text messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>Consultations Internet, Electronic Message Board Quarterly „Nasza Firma“ (Our Company) Regular meetings of management team Employees’ Council sessions Integration meetings and trips Company newsletters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppliers, contractors and business partners</td>
<td>Meetings and conferences Newsletters Ongoing contact (e-mail, telephone) Satisfaction surveys Conferences and cyclical meetings Monthly „Bez recepty“ (Over the Counter), „Farmakoekonomika Szpitalna“</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jan Klimek, Jacek Lipiec
Pelion’s social impact revolves around striving to care for the health of local communities. The company realizes this endeavor by promoting a healthy lifestyle and by increasing an access to medicine and treatment. In particular, this interaction is realized through transferring business competencies to local community to help mitigate health problems. The employees are also involved in this interaction through volunteering. These activities allow Pelion to improve the social dimension of the brand and to increase an interest in the company’s products in the long horizon. In particular, the local involvement of the company centers around its foundation “Dbam o Zdrowie” (serving unprivileged communities who do not afford to buy medicines and treatment), “Urtica for Children and the Sunny Gallery” (providing financial support to hospitals’ pediatric and hematological wards) or “Dbam o Zdrowie Marathon” (one of the largest Polish marathon). It is worth mentioning that this involvement in the local community has been undertaking by the company since its beginnings. Miroslaw Kachniewski, the President of the Polish Association of Stock Exchange Issuers (SEG) said that about Pelio-
n’s social responsibility: “Reporting of ESG data is extremely important for long-term valuation of companies, not only due to the growing importance of socially-responsible investing, but primarily in the context of additional risk analysis. The Company’s ability to generate future cash flows depends to a large extent on the accurate identification and effective mitigation of environmental risks (this applies to all industries, not only to those known as heavy polluters), social risks (related mainly to relations with employees and the local community), as well as corporate governance risks (especially in terms of effective supervision). Bearing this in mind, the Polish Association of Stock Exchange Issuers has been reviewing, for a number of years, all listed companies in terms of their compliance with these criteria. Every year, Pelion is among top companies reporting their ESG data” [Pelion 2013].

We were also interested in finding out how Pelion meets the Global Reporting Initiative’s disclosure criteria. The following table presents GRI parameters and a degree of satisfying them by Pelion (see Table 2).

Table 2. GRI Content Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disclosure</th>
<th>Location of disclosure in the report</th>
<th>Level of reporting in 2013</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Statement from the most senior decision-maker of the organisation (executive director, Management Board President or an officer holding equivalent position) about the relevance of sustainability to the organisation and its strategy</td>
<td>p. 5–6</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Name of the organization</td>
<td>p. 119</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Primary brands, products, and/or services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p. 13,15–16,61</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Operational structure of the organisation, including main divisions, operating companies, subsidiaries, and joint ventures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p. 15–16</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Location of organisation’s headquarters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p. 119</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Number of countries where the organisation operates, and names of countries with either major operations or that are specifically relevant to the sustainability issues covered in the report</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p. 13, 15–16,119–120</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Nature of ownership and legal form</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p. 13,119</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7 Markets served (including geographic breakdown, sectors served, and types of customers/beneficiaries)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p. 15–16, 29–62</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8 Scale of the reporting organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p. 1–2,61</td>
<td></td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Significant changes during the reporting period regarding size, structure, or ownership.</td>
<td>p. 32</td>
<td>● Changes are described in detail in the Directors’ Report on the operations of the Pelion Health-care Group in 2013, published at <a href="http://www.pelion.eu">www.pelion.eu</a>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>Awards received in the reporting period</td>
<td>p. 77–78</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Reporting period (e.g., fiscal/calendar year) for information provided</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Date of most recent previous report (if any)</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Reporting cycle (annual, biennial, etc.)</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Contact point for questions regarding the report or its contents</td>
<td>p. 119</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>Process for defining report content: Including determining materiality (for the organisation and its stakeholders) Including prioritising topics within the report Including identifying stakeholders the organisation expects to use the report</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Boundary of the report (e.g., countries, divisions, subsidiaries, leased facilities, joint ventures, and suppliers); see GRI Boundary Protocol for further guidance</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>State any specific limitations on the scope or boundary of the report</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Basis for reporting on joint ventures, subsidiaries, leased facilities, outsourced operations, and other entities that can significantly affect comparability from period to period and/or between organisations</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>Explanation of the effect of any restatements of information provided in earlier reports, and the reasons for such restatement (e.g., mergers/acquisitions, change of base years/periods, nature of business, measurement methods)</td>
<td></td>
<td>● No restatements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>Significant changes from previous reporting periods in the scope, boundary, or measurement methods applied in the report</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>Table identifying the location of the Standard Disclosures in the report</td>
<td>p. 114–115</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>Policy and current practice with regard to seeking external assurance for the report. If not included in the assurance report accompanying the sustainability report, explain the scope and basis of any external assurance provided, and the relationship between the reporting organisation and the assurance provider(s)</td>
<td>p. 4</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Governance structure of the organisation, including committees under the highest governance body responsible for specific tasks, such as setting strategy or organisational oversight</td>
<td>p. 81-84</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>Indicate whether the Chair of the highest governance body is also an executive officer (if so, if their function is within the organisation’s management and the reasons for this arrangement)</td>
<td>p. 82</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>For organisations that have a unitary board structure, state the number of members of the highest governance body that are independent and/or non-executive members</td>
<td>p. 82-82</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Mechanisms for shareholders and employees to provide recommendations or direction to the highest governance body</td>
<td>p. 81–84, 94</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>Internally developed statements of mission or values, codes of conduct, and principles relevant to economic, environmental, and social performance and the status of their implementation. If applicable: Explain the degree to which these are applied across the organisation in different regions and in different departments/units. Explain the degree to which these relate to international standards</td>
<td>p. 13-14</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>Externally developed economic, environmental, and social charters, principles, or other initiatives to which the organisation subscribes or endorses</td>
<td>p. 70–72</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>Memberships in associations (such as industry associations) and/or national/international advocacy organisations: In which the organisation has positions in governance bodies In which the organisation participates in projects or committees In which the organisation provides substantive funding beyond routine membership dues In which the organisation views membership as strategic</td>
<td>p. 70</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>List of stakeholder groups engaged by the Organization</td>
<td>p. 70–72</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>Basis for identification and selection of stakeholders with whom to engage</td>
<td>p. 70–72</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>Approaches to stakeholder engagement, including frequency of engagement by type and by stakeholder group</td>
<td>p. 70–72</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC1</td>
<td>Direct economic value generated and distributed, including revenues, operating costs, employee compensation, donations, and other community investments, retained earnings, and payments to capital providers and governments</td>
<td>p. 106–110</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC7</td>
<td>Procedures for local hiring and proportion of senior management hired from the local community at significant locations of operation</td>
<td>p. 91</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN4</td>
<td>Indirect energy consumption by primary source</td>
<td>p. 60, 75</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN8</td>
<td>Total water withdrawal by source</td>
<td>p. 75</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN21</td>
<td>Total water discharge by quality and destination</td>
<td>p. 75</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN22</td>
<td>Total weight of waste by type and disposal method</td>
<td>p. 76</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN28</td>
<td>Monetary value of significant fines and total number of non-monetary sanctions for non-compliance with environmental laws and regulations</td>
<td>p. 73</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN29</td>
<td>Significant environmental impacts of transporting products and other goods and materials used for the organisation's operations, and transporting members of the workforce</td>
<td>p. 35–36, 53–54, 60, 73–74</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA1</td>
<td>Total workforce by employment type, employment contract, and region</td>
<td>p. 87</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA2</td>
<td>Total number and rate of employee turnover by age group, gender, and region</td>
<td>p. 88</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA7</td>
<td>Rates of injury, occupational diseases, lost days, and absenteeism, and number of work-related fatalities by region</td>
<td>p. 88</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA10</td>
<td>Average hours of training per year per employee by employee category.</td>
<td>p. 89–90</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page(s)</td>
<td>Mark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA13</td>
<td>Composition of governance bodies and breakdown of employees per category according to gender, age group, minority group membership, and other indicators of diversity</td>
<td>p. 87</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA14</td>
<td>Ratio of basic salary of men to women by employee category</td>
<td>p. 89</td>
<td>◼</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR4</td>
<td>Total number of incidents of discrimination and actions taken</td>
<td>p. 89</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO6</td>
<td>Total value of financial and in-kind contributions to political parties, politicians, and related institutions by country</td>
<td>p. 89</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO4</td>
<td>Actions taken in response to incidents of corruption</td>
<td>p. 89</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO7</td>
<td>Total number of legal actions for anti-competitive behaviour, anti-trust, and monopoly practices and their outcomes</td>
<td>p. 89</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO8</td>
<td>Monetary value of significant fines and total number of non-monetary sanctions for non-compliance with laws and regulations</td>
<td>p. 49</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR1</td>
<td>Life cycle stages in which health and safety impacts of products and services are assessed for improvement, and percentage of significant products and services categories subject to such procedures</td>
<td>p. 53, 61–62</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 2013, the Pelion Healthcare Group made no contributions to political parties, politicians, and related institutions.

No incidents of corruption and related misconduct were reported in 2013.

No cases of anti-competitive behaviour, anti-trust, and monopoly practices were reported in 2013.

In 2013, a penalty of PLN 486,100 was imposed on one of the Group’s subsidiaries (DOZ S.A.) for a breach of the ban on advertising.
As it turns out, Pelion meets almost all GRI criteria completely. This certifies the highest level of engagement in improving sustainability both in the local communities and in a broad sense.

Conclusions

The aim of this paper was to benchmark the social roles of family firms running its activities in the local environment. We set the stage with outlining the Corporate Social Responsibility in Poland. Then we focused on two most critical promoters of CSR: the United Nations Environment Program and the Global Reporting on Sustainability which evolved from UNEP. Our choice was to select the Pelion Healthcare Group because this company reports its social issues by using the most advanced sustainability reporting guidelines. In addition, these company is public and is obliged to report to investors, including CSR issues.

We have found in our article that the Pelion Healthcare Group is dedicated to serve local communities. The Pelion has launched innovative programs that serve local communities as "Dbam o Zdrowie" ("I care for a health"). This company reaches its stakeholders through different means and communication channels.

In summary, we think that the Pelion Healthcare Group may be recommended as the company to be followed by other companies in developing their Corporate Social Responsibilities as their dedication to these responsibilities is exhibited in the local community and in engagement and partnership with global promoters of CSR.

References


Introduction

Currently, in the economics world – in specific in tourism – occur major changes, requiring techniques that allow to measure and identify the behaviour of the population and the economy, trying to get an x-ray of its structure and flow, obtaining, in this way, results for both private and public sector decision-making.

Planning requires doing, but lack of further analysis of the economy and in specific tourism, worries both the Government and scholars. This entails observing the results in the six-year periods, in the case of the Governments national and State, and triennial for the municipalities, which is evidence of results on the behavior shown by tourists in Sinaloa. As stated by Gomez [2011] “before the stagnation often shown by the mature vacation destinations is important to renew them or restructure them”.

Therefore, the main objective of this essay is to analyze the impact of development plans in relation to tourism in Sinaloa as policy support, as well as to consider the aspects that have been strongly associated with success in the sector. Likewise, intends to verify, by way of hypothesis, the existing evidence of the gap that prevails between the planning of economic development and the real actual practice.

It is important to ask the following questions to understand the design of tourism development plans: what happened to the planning of tourism deve-
lopment in Sinaloa, what is the intellectual capacity of those who develop the planning of tourism in the State, on the understanding that those who develop these plans “require deep knowledge, empirical, multidisciplinary views, complex thinking and above all ethical principles of the planners” [Gomez 2011, p. 4].

In this way, this article is divided into four sections. First is an analysis of the State of the art in relation to science, economic growth and development planning; following by an analysis of the productive structure and the economic growth of Sinaloa as a reference is made to learn about their behavior, and in third term is made an analysis of the tourism development planning in Sinaloa in the years 1999–2004 and 2005–2010, and what were the quantitative results of the main indicators in those periods. Finally the conclusions, with an explanation for these results.

The methodology used for the development of this test was quantitative, as it was necessary to develop a series of time on the behavior of economic indicators of the tourism, so it was necessary to the processing of captured data on growth rates annualized one year to another, average annual growth in the period 1999–2010, rate and percentage participation in economic structure.

It is also required to consult information from secondary sources, such as the plans of State Development (PED) for periods in the analysis of the Government of the State of Sinaloa (GES), statistical yearbooks, as well as the systems of national accounts Mexico at the National Institute of Statistics, geography and Informatics (Inegi), of the Consejo Nacional de Población (Conapo), the Bank of Mexico (Banxico), among others of equal importance.

Theory of economic growth

Krugman warns [1994, p. 34] that there are many economic puzzles but only two are really important. The first of them is the following: why the growth rate varies with the passage of time and from one region to another? The second mystery is clear from the question: why is there an irregular rhythm of recessions and recoveries that prevents growth from following a uniform or natural tendency?

Before this, economic policy is essential intended to accelerate its pace, to create new jobs and improve social welfare. As a result, the discretionary in most of the time, government intervention influences regional disparities [Johnston 1995, p. 94].

Therefore, the evaluation of an economic policy is usually judged based on criteria such as: if growth is high and stable, income distribution improves, and the assessment will be positive [Valenzuela 1995, p. 6]. In this sense (development) qualitative improvement and quantitative progress (growth)
can follow different routes, since the first means an increase of the size of the economy, and the second, adding the first, involves essentially raising the levels of well-being.

Tourism always analysis has focused on the growth and development has been neglected. As an example: Cancun, main hub of tourism development in Mexico, its development generated inequalities already known: insecurity, unemployment and poor quality of services granted to population, formation of a belt of poverty on the outskirts, among other problems, questions that generate these social and environmental imbalances since they do not address the problem of distribution of income and employment.

Sinaloa: productive structure and economic growth

The entity generated 2.1 percent of the GDP in 2010. At the State level, the sector that contributes most is trade, restaurants and hotels, with 26 percent of the State GDP; follow him, communal, social and personal services with 16.8 percent; and services financial, insurance and real estate, with 16.2 percent, according to figures from Inegi.

According to the 2009 economic censuses, the entity had 80,000 613 economic units, of which 45.6 per cent are engaged in trade; 24.2 per cent to the non-financial services; and 10.1 per cent to manufacturing.

On the other hand, the rate of growth of the Sinaloan economy in 2010, was 2.1 per cent, lower than the national average, which was 5.3 percent in the same year; this shows that the trend of long-term status is stationary, and therefore there is no evidence of causing a deviation on the upside in the short term. Additionally, by the nature of its main activities is very unstable, which is adversely in the environment for the development of business and the planned investment of medium and long term.

The above has an explanation: a structure of the state economy with predominance of primary activities and little incorporation of value added, prevents a greater productive dynamics, deteriorating terms of trade, increases the uncertainty of the environment for business, slows capital accumulation and impairs the ability of generating jobs in quantity and, above all, quality [Romero et al. 2009, p. 24].

In this sense the problem in the economy of Sinaloa is a primary economy without structural change, and which highlights the contribution of the State to national GDP has fallen from 2.23 percent in 1993 to 2.1 percent in 2010.

This behavior is observed in the production of the state structure, since this has maintained its dynamic without significant changes, as shown in table 1. However, its growth rate has picked up in recent years, in contrast to the year 2009 showing a considerable decline.
### Table 1. Structure production of the State of Sinaloa, 1993–2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic sector</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural, forestry and fishing</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing industry</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, gas and water</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade, hotels and restaurants</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport, storage and communications</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial, insurance and real estate services</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community, social and personal services</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own elaboration, with figures from INEGI, statistical yearbooks of the State of Sinaloa.

Sinaloan economy had been registering growth more dynamic and less unstable, resulting in greater competitiveness. Reduction of the volatility of growth is necessary, but not sufficient, to improve the business environment and attract investment into non-traditional activities. That is, if instability tends to reduce persistently, the State economy will rise in the national ranking, to improve the environment for private investment [Romero et al. 2009, p. 27].

On the other hand it has a very weak domestic private consumption, in which real income per capita is lower than the national average and is below its long-term trend, but this is positive.

In 2010 it was estimated that the GDP per capita in Sinaloa is 5 thousand dollars (61 current pesos); this is lower than the national average, which is about 6 mil $ 58 (74.7 current pesos). For Sinaloa, it means having a level of real per capita income below its long-term trend, as a reflection of an economy of low added value creation.
Talking about tourism in Sinaloa is with no doubt referring to the port of Mazatlan, which is considered as productive in the South of the State, since it has defined in tourism one of their economic vocations, activity that emphasizes its expertise from the fall of the fishing and the fall of commercial traffic to the port in recent years.

But we must not abandon the cities of Culiacan, Guasave and Los Mochis, which are considered commercial destinations and business. In this sense, Sinaloa has a wide range of attractions that allow the state to have a significant tourist potential. As an example there are the colonial buildings, the vessels of dams, beaches and lagoons for the development of hunting and traditional cultural expressions.

The arrival in the state is carried out through the four-lane highway as part of Don station, Sonora, and ends in Escuinapa. By air it is reached through three international airports. By sea two ferry terminals communicate with the peninsula of Baja California. By railroad, in San Blas (municipality of El Fuerte) are interconnected with the Chihuahua Pacific Railway. Complete communications network the road linking to Mazatlán to Durango and La Laguna region, as well as the 15 Mexico-Nogales Highway, which crosses Sinaloa [Maradiaga 1996].

For this reason, considers tourism as the second pillar of Sinaloa economics, after the agricultural activities, since in 2011 represented 12 percent of the gross state product and it is the second source of foreign currency, with a large multiplier effect on investment, income and employment [PED 2011, p. 227].

In this sense, the tourist influx of Sinaloa in 2011 was 2 million 739 thousand tourists, 2.1 percent less than 2010, of which 2 million 311 were 428 thousand foreign and national visitors [Inegi 2012].
The hotel infrastructure of Sinaloa, in this same year, consisted of 19 thousand 742 rooms in 431 establishments, distributed mainly in hotels, 74.7 percent, and 10 percent in motels. The rest is composed of guesthouses, cottages, suites, cabins, trailer parks, among others. This data allows the state to occupy eighth/tenth place at national level, according to figures from Inegi.

Likewise, by categories, the 7.7 per cent corresponds to hotels five-star, 13.2 per cent of four-star, 18.8 per cent of three-star, 9.5 per cent two-star and 10.2 per cent to a star hotels; the remaining 40.6 percent are classified without categories.

Projects are starting to promote Sinaloa and it is supposed that one can say that state will compete with the best destinations in Mexico or in your case with some countries of the world. These are projects of beach spirit in Escuinapa, Park OceArq Las Labradas in San Ignacio, Echo Park Las Mari- smas, the sustainable model Beach (Togo), Cortes Island project (Nuevo Alta- ta) in Navolato, Ahome Ohuira Bay, the Park wit in Los Mochis, Ahome, the Durango-Mazatlán Highway, the bridge bulwark bicentennial as well as real estate development and services of high level in Mazatlan. Likewise, the 29 projects are considered which have been promoted in recent years, which car- ry considerable progress connected with the development [GES 2012].


Adam Smith [1992, p. 2], raises the Nations fairly advanced expertise, skill and judgement for the implementation of the work, have followed very diver- se plans in the general direction of it, not everyone has been equally favoura- ble to the greatness of the product.

Taking this claim as a reference, the design of a State Development Plan (PED) in a state tries to satisfy the constitutional mandate and provide a fra- mework that coordinates the efforts of dependencies that structure the sta- te and municipal governments in the orders, in conjunction with the social and productive sectors, and in this way achieve the strategic objectives set out therein.

In this sense, one of the goals as a strategy for policy in the developing countries, is an access to higher stages of development in an entity; essentially, seeks the reduction of economic inequality. In this direction, the policy is due to adopted growth pattern. The latter draws on the paradigm that defines the type of state intervention, the instruments to be used and the task con- ferred to agents and productive sectors [Avilés 2006, p. 46].

In addition, when we talk about development, it is important to consider a strategic program that may arise in the long term, and which must take as a reference multiple aspects of social life: would you want to, which are the
deadlines that will be achieved, how it will be done? Here it’s a strategic de-velopment plan.

Since the tourism industry operates on a global scale, the role of the local public administration is becoming increasingly apparent to be sufficiently aggressive and conscious of what has to be done so that their locations are increasingly more involved in it, and that well-managed revenues are invested in their local economies [Musaraj 2012, p. 42].

In Sinaloa, on the approach of the two last periods (1999–2004 and 2005–2010), specific for tourism development plans, while it is true that a number of approaches have been made, also it is in analytical perspective. Comparing development plans with the best practices in diagnosis, strengths and opportunities, strategic objectives, lines of action and goals, shows the lack of use of measuring instruments such as econometric models that help to infer in the path of fundamentals in analysis and/or prospective studies, in an attempt to predict Zamara as objectively possible – the future of tourism.

In this way, exposing the objectives, actions and targets is inferred from a qualitative that all these approaches are focused to increase the influx of tourism and specifically from abroad as well as foreign exchange earnings that it entails. The results in this period, behavior in the long term is stable trend and without major changes in their behavior, to observe an annual growth rate average, in the six-year period 1999–2004, from 2.1 percent and 4.1 percent in the six-year period 2005–2010, which gives a cumulative, in these 12 years, 5.3 per cent, in the recruitment of foreign domestic tourists (graph 3).

Graph 3. Tourist influx in Sinaloa, 1999-2010

Source: own elaboration, with figures from INEGI, statistical yearbooks of the State of Sinaloa.

However, despite this growth trend of tourism in recent years, this remains far behind in terms of competitiveness with regard to the most nearby destinations, such as Puerto Vallarta in Jalisco, and Los Cabos in Baja California.
On the other hand, the fall of stay average, measured in days in the long run, surely is explained by behavior that has had the issue of security in the state, since without a doubt characterized by staying in one of the first places nationwide for the considered crimes of high impact. The type of services offered to tourists is added to this, ranging from the travel agencies, quality of products, to the problems of drinking water and urban development seen in the port of Mazatlan, main tourist destination of sun and sand and arrival of largest number of foreign tourists (graph 4).

The constant cancellation of direct flights to Sinaloa is added to this. Rendon [1995, p. 218] mentions this factor is one of the main obstacles for the tourist influx decreases, making the region less attractive for foreign and domestic tourists, and at the same time the average stay is reduced.

Another element in development plans is the raise hotel occupancy, which is measured in percentages, and for a better explanation is analyzed in its rate of growth with information provided by Inegi. This indicator is in their long-term trend has been down, as observed in 2010, showing the more pronounced decline in the past 11 years, registering a 13.9 percent (graphic 5).

Source: own elaboration, with figures from INEGI, statistical yearbooks of the State of Sinaloa.
This confirms that the Sinaloa and, in particular, Mazatlan, hotel offer still fails to be of quality to a greater number of tourists with high purchasing power and especially abroad, and also locate the State within the caring concept. While it is true that the hotel occupancy rate has maintained an average rate, in the period 1999–2010, 54.3 percent, it is also the highest percentage to occupy it domestic tourists, with 81 percent.

Concerning the issue of investment carried out in the diversification and strengthening of the hotel offer, the state image, alternative cultural, rural and ecological tourism and adventure, quality in public services and in particular the strengthening of the relationship with the Ministry of tourism (Sectur) and National Fund for tourism promotion (Fonatur) for the development of new tourism projects. In this regard, in 2009 was an investment 154 million 293 thousand pesos, 32.4 percent were invested by the Government equal investment and federal State Government, made it 28.7 per cent invested it the private sector and the remaining 6.5 percent the municipalities.

As we observe, investment has had a behavior with a tendency to run down, what can be explained by the reduction of investment by the federal Government, who in 1999 spent 95.7 billion pesos and 19.6 million pesos. For 2009 this trend was reduced to an investment of 50 million for both cases and is from 2002 when the investment made by the municipalities. In this period (1999–2009) represented a growth in annual average of 2.5 percent (graphic 6).

Source: own elaboration, with figures from INEGI, statistical yearbooks of the State of Sinaloa.

Between the investments made, they were destined to “support investment projects that diversify and strengthen the tourism infrastructure, promote the development of centres with the participation of the community ecotourism” [PED 1999]. As well as of “promoting a culture of total quality in providing and tourist services, diversify tourist activities, introducing alternative rural tourism projects” [PED 2005].
From part of the investments that were made in this period benefited entrepreneurs in the development of new infrastructure, and at the same time allowed the diversification of the same, as noted with the restaurants, which grew in the period (1999–2010) at 9.8 percent on annual average, this having gone through 370 establishments registered in 1999 to 1 thousand 36 in 2010. Discotheques and nightclubs increased its share from 46 stores in 1999, 74 in 2010, an increase of 4.4 percent on annual average (table 2).

Table 2. Main services establishments support to tourism, 1999–2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>1,036</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nightclubs and discotheques</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bars</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment of beverages</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>-109</td>
<td>-10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agencies</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>-22</td>
<td>-1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car rental companies</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine tourism</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own elaboration, with figures from INEGI, statistical yearbooks of the State of Sinaloa.

By corresponding to bars and drinks establishments – they reduced its participation in the sector, since much of the new restaurants added to these drinks area. Travel agencies were reduced in correspondence to the reduction of flights to Mazatlan cruise ship arrivals.

Conclusion

A skepticism is observed considering the concept of science in their research as it was previously seen in studies on tourism. As Gomez mentioned, “It is not possible that many of these researchers, who called turismologos, do not have the scientific attitude for the reason that I do not know that it is science or is produced”.

For this reason, this essay is an analysis of the theory of economic growth, explaining the difference between growth and development.

Tourism is constantly treated as the engine to come to boost the economy so much global, national, state and municipal, capable of generating jobs and attract foreign currency, and that for Sinaloa represents the second pillar after the primary activities in the generation of foreign exchange and its multiplier effect on investment, income and employment.

As the results presented in the development of this essay, it is easy to determine that in the economy of Sinaloa tourism has not taken off according to scholars and people involved in development planning. Factors that
have influenced the growth or decrease of tourism are: campaigns of vilification towards the State, either within the country as abroad, and in specific United States, the absence of the modernization of services and tourism diversification, loss of connecting flight with the main cities of the country, and to say from the outside, the main provider of tourists.

It is important to highlight concern shown by Gomez [2011, p. 16], in particular with the following questions: “What are the effects of tourism planning? And what has been effective in combating social exclusion in the vacation destinations?”.

It is clear from the foregoing that in Sinaloa analysis plans became a requirement to meet the constitutional commitment, and an external company is hired to develop the strategic plan for tourism and develop an analysis of the tourist potential, which is well known.

It is important to highlight great dependency that makes federal institutions, in this case Fonatur and Sectur, for framing in their investment plans. As example is sunset in March of the Center integrally planned Beach spirit (CIP Teacapan, Escuinapa) which would mean in the medium term a new hub of regional, same development that would compete with Mazatlan, main destination of Sun and beach in the State, but recently has heard that this great project you was reduced by 40 percent ‘250 million pesos’ budget exercise for this year (2013).

It is important for Sinaloa not only try to solve the problem for the tourism itself, they will have to develop strategies for the economy of the State of long term, which are aimed at raising competitiveness, detonate the generator best job growth, and that in turn promote greater well-being for the population in the state.

The development of human capital must be added to this, which should be associated with reaching the specialization in production in sectors, which do not have presence in international markets. This will allow the emergence of comparative and competitive advantages in activities in which the Sinaloa economy shows weaknesses, and would enable the diversification of its productive structure and boost economic growth in all sectors and in particular the tourist.

But as mentioned Aguilar and Castaneda [2009]), “the labour market in Mexico creates many jobs, but very few good jobs. If you do not remove the obstacles to the creation of productive jobs, increased competition will not reflect in higher labor productivity, higher real wages and greater weight in national wealth”.

Finally again arises the question: who will deal with the articulation of public policies associated with the economy, particularly the tourism there? This response will be answered when there are real resources for the trans-
formation of the current conditions, and for this purpose should have instruments in terms of resources, institutional attribution, intellectual skills, financing and participation of both public and private tourism stakeholders and society, among others, as without instruments, development planning will become only speech.

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Selected Aspects of Knowledge Diffusion in a Family Micro-Enterprise

Introduction
Due to the existing competitive environment and businesses’ dramatic attempts at gaining market advantage, the use of conventional methods of management frequently proves insufficient. Family-run enterprises, which constitute the vast majority of micro-enterprises, are faced with serious market challenges in terms of gaining high competitive position or even survival. One of the resources ensuring growth and development of unique competencies is knowledge. The research hypothesis assumed that the present state of knowledge diffusion to the family micro-enterprises sector was unsatisfactory, and that identification of factors aiding said diffusion might improve family micro-enterprises’ competitiveness as long as said instruments are properly selected and fitted to the surrounding conditions. The research was conducted in the period of 2009–2014 by way of questionnaire-based surveys, interviews, discussions with experts and participant observation. It was carried out in collaboration with later years’ students of the University of Social Sciences. Among others, the Internet and an e-learning platform were used for the purposes of the research.

Knowledge as an element in a family micro-enterprise’s competitiveness in the light of literature studies
The issues of micro-enterprise management from the perspective of knowledge diffusion are only occasionally addressed in literature. The pioneer in research on micro-entrepreneurship in Poland is PARP – Polish Agency for Enterprise Development, which has conducted pilot studies on micro-businesses, competitiveness level and dealt with innovation. One should note that PAR-
P’s research is only preliminary and covers but a small group of representatives of the sector made up of over three million micro-businesses. Research on family enterprises conducted inter alia by Ł. Sułkowski and A. Marjański covered 40 businesses, 50% of which were micro-enterprises [Sułkowski, Haus, Safin 2005, p. 24]. The research confirmed that most family-run businesses had no formal development strategy [Safil 2005, p. 139]. The family’s goals were equated with the strategy of that family’s enterprise [Sułkowski, Marjański 2009, p. 60], and the family’s influence was visible at each stage of the strategy creation.

Raport Strategia Rozwoju Nauki w Polsce do roku 2015 (English: Strategy for Development of Sciences in Poland until 2015 Report) prepared by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education defines and sets directions for science development based on analyses of the state of science as a source of knowledge and innovation. In the report, raising the level of knowledge and of its diffusion among SMEs is considered one of the main indices and main goals of science development [Ministry of Science and Higher Education of Poland, p. 7]. An analysis of knowledge diffusion performed through analyzing the funding of cooperation between the business sector and scientific research centres has demonstrated that among OECD countries Poland is the leader as regards the participation of non-State Budget funds in the financing of extra-academic research institutions (15.6%; the average value for the EU-27 – 8.4%, the average value for OECD – 3.5%). A comparably high level in Poland is recorded with regards to State Budget participation in funding of the business sector (12.3%; average value for the EU – 7.2%, OECD – 6.8%) [Ministry of Science and Higher Education of Poland 2008, p. 12]. Taking into consideration other significant disparities in the innovation indices between Poland and other EU countries, one may argue that the dynamics of redressing the distance is high. Dissimilar observations are, however, formulated by Starczewska-Krzysztof in her research conducted for Lewiatan [Starczewska-Krzysztof 2007, p. 30], which shows that knowledge held only the penultimate position on the list of innovation creation factors in enterprises (cited by 18% of the surveyed SMEs), and was preceded by economic and financial factors. These results may suggest that the majority of micro-enterprises from the SME sector consider knowledge neither a key resource nor a barrier to achieving an innovation goal. Essential elements of competitiveness are competencies which – as interpreted based on theory of management – are understood as the sum of skills and experience of the managers and the employees. Competencies combine:

- knowledge,
- experience,
- skills.
These components are relevant in the micro-enterprises sector and help an organization achieve its market goals [Masłyk-Musiał 2005, p 25]. In Gierszewska’s opinion, organizational competencies are the result of experiences accumulation in the process of organizational learning [Gierszewska 2005, p. 29]. When analysing the organizational competencies typology proposed by Gierszewska, one may point to certain connection with a micro-enterprise’s activities in the following four areas:

- technology,
- production,
- organization,
- management.

In my own research, I was searching inter alia for the answer to the question of which of the types of competencies prevails in micro-business [Janczewska 2012, pp. 11–35]. Studies of strategic competencies [Stankiewicz 2002, p. 212] demonstrate their paramount importance. Stankiewicz’s research, however, did not cover the micro-business group. On the other hand, my own research on micro-enterprises [Janczewska 2013, pp. 103–115] have led to certain generalizations: that micro-enterprises, due to having limited resources, are able to improve the technology at their disposal at a pace much slower than can be observed in medium-sized or large enterprises, that means over a number of years. In consequence of the lengthy improvement process, unique technological, formula or process solutions are created. Thanks to their ability to offer short production runs, a micro-business is prepared to make frequent technological alterations. Changes of an innovative nature are possible even in the course of the very production process, often being so minor that the owner does not, actually, consider them to be innovative. Innovative changes in the scope of work organization or management methods, though, in a micro-enterprise progress much faster than is practicable in a medium-sized or a large entity. A small group of employees (up to 9 people) are able to better understand the intentions of the owner or of the manager when he or she intends to plan the personnel’s duties differently or to set new market goals for the enterprise.

Knowledge diffusion in the family micro-enterprises sector

The concept and definition of knowledge have no precise interpretation in economic literature, unlike the term “technology”, which is understood as general technical knowledge concerning individual areas of technical expertise. From the perspective of economic sciences, data, information and knowledge are separate types of economic goods, each having its specific usefulness and value. A mere store of information does not constitute a body of knowledge,
as it is unstructured and undeliberate; it is only interpretation and arrangement of such set of information that can be considered knowledge [Weres- sa 2007, p. 28]. According to the OSLO Manual methodology, knowledge-intensive economy is characterised by a high degree of innovative activities understood as implementing – with significant intensity – new products, technologies and organizational innovations, especially innovations in the field of management.

In knowledge-intensive enterprises, development of the entity will be dependent upon the possessed body of knowledge and the ability to utilize the same [Białoń, Janczewska 2007, p. 93]. Therefore, these enterprises need to:

- plan their future development, which is connected with a defined expenditure framework and must, therefore, provide for expenses related to purchase or creation of new knowledge to apply in contemporary processes, in particular in innovative ones, the more so that products’ life cycles are becoming shorter,
- assess their own innovation potential required for growth of their innovative activity dynamics based on the enterprise's own personnel and their high qualifications in technical sciences, as well as in mathematics and natural sciences,
- be prepared for a growing domestic and international competition – creation and implementation of innovative solutions with a high level of knowledge saturation is a factor in gaining competitive advantage.

The main prerequisite for creating bodies of knowledge is providing higher-level education, with education indices for the given country being considered an important aspect of building a knowledge economy. The micro-enterprises sector\textsuperscript{24} is not one of knowledge-intensive sectors, which may be explained on the grounds of resource dependence theory. There is no research on family-run micro-businesses with focus on explaining this status quo. My own research conducted on a group of family-run micro-enterprises in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeship has shown that micro-businesses’ owners do not actively seek knowledge nor do they attach importance to its diffusion, as it is understood in line with classical diffusion theories [Janczewska 2013, pp. 165–177]\textsuperscript{25}.

Research conducted by PARP demonstrates that the level of innovation among small and medium-sized enterprises is rather low, and among the surveyed entities only 13.9% implemented innovations in the period 2004–2006. To compare – in the large enterprises group, over the surveyed period

\textsuperscript{24} The sector of family micro-enterprises includes service providers and entities operating in the fields of construction, production, medicine and education.

65.5% of the entities implemented innovations [Wojnicka, Klimczak 2008, p. 54]. The innovative activity rates among public undertakings are higher than those recorded among private entities, the majority of which are family-run businesses, which is symptomatic. In research on micro-enterprises’ innovative activity [Juchniewicz, Grzybowska 2010, p. 14], the results for micro-businesses oscillate around 1%, which some view as falling within statistical error bounds. In the light of the low pro-innovation activity level among micro-entrepreneurs, it is difficult to talk about building knowledge economy without searching for an answer as to what is the reason for this situation. There is no research on management that would focus on family-run micro-businesses. An analysis of practical application of knowledge in the SME sector suggests that the following important factors create a barrier for innovation development [Daszkiewicz 2008, p. 53]:

- poorly operating or insufficient systems of support for pro-innovation behaviours among entrepreneurs,
- efficiency of research results’ implementation in enterprises,
- cooperation between the science sector with and enterprises,
- structure of the research leading to innovative implementations.

Due to the fact that most of the knowledge required to implement innovations – and, thus, necessary for a business development – exists outside of the enterprise, the very initiation and implementation of the knowledge diffusion process is of great importance. Unfortunately, even in the countries leading in the technical fields, there are no good ways of solving this problem. Analyses performed in the United States have led to the conclusion that greater success is seen in creating knowledge than in organizing its diffusion. The complex problem of knowledge diffusion and innovation can be made more accessible by using the simplified four-factor model which includes: a) society with its tradition, culture and individual attitudes, 2) institutional environment, in particular the state, 3) economic entities with their ability to absorb knowledge and innovation, and 4) the knowledge sector, including the system of education and research and the system of knowledge and innovation promotion. Each of these elements plays a specific role which affects the spread of knowledge and innovation [Golej 2015].

One of the more important factors creating innovation capacity in enterprises is knowledge diffusion. In the information era – where competitive leverage is provided by knowledge or, as some researchers believe, by having the skills to transform knowledge into innovation – the ability to absorb both knowledge itself and its utilizable form, i.e. innovation, by the SME sector entities becomes a crucial issue in economic development. This is a significant problem also to large companies, whose collaborators are frequently
enterprises from the SME sector. Perechuda believes that a new management axis will be created by: information – knowledge – emotions – creativity – innovation. It is around this axis that new solutions will be created to build competitive advantage [Perechuda 2005].

Presentation of the results of research on factors aiding knowledge diffusion from the area of science to the family micro-enterprises sector

Research on knowledge diffusion in SMEs was conducted in 2009–2014. The study sample comprised 100 enterprises from the Lodz, Mazovian and Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeships. In this group, 20% were micro-businesses classified as family enterprises. For the purposes of this article, the key issue is the way in which knowledge was transferred to micro-enterprises and how these entities signalled their demand for knowledge. The surveyed family-run businesses indicated that diffusion vectors ran in the following directions:

- from an institution of higher education to an enterprise: in the form of lectures given to students of various levels; classes in the course of postgraduate studies, designed to supplement the knowledge gained during graduate studies; practical classes and workshops whose participants seek to transform their theoretical knowledge into practical skills,
- during conferences, seminars and training sessions,
- joint actions and projects carried out by knowledge institutions and micro-enterprises: knowledge exchange between the science area and the micro-enterprises sector,

The surveyed micro-enterprises listed the following activities among noticeable forms of knowledge diffusion and knowledge sources:

- participation in fairs and exhibitions – 50%,
- trade journals, books, standards – 40%,
- new knowledge provided by customers – 40%,
- new knowledge provided by suppliers – 30%,
- the Internet – 30%,
- participation in training sessions and courses – 20%,
- studies at institutions of higher education – 15%,
- postgraduate studies – 15%,
- experts’ reports and consultations – 5%.

Knowledge diffusion has two aspects: passive – consisting in acquisition of the existing knowledge, and active – consisting in its practical application; frequently, this does not have to do with knowledge that is new on the world scale but rather with utilizing any existing knowledge in a manner previously
unknown. Results of research into factors aiding knowledge diffusion from the science area to micro-enterprises are descriptively presented in Table 1.

**Table 1. Factors aiding knowledge diffusion from academic institutions to the micro-enterprises sector and the possibilities of knowledge application in the region – benefits and barriers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of knowledge transfer</th>
<th>Category of knowledge</th>
<th>Form of transfer</th>
<th>Transfer factors</th>
<th>Benefits for micro-businesses</th>
<th>Barriers faced by micro-businesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graduates undertaking work in industry</td>
<td>Explicit knowledge</td>
<td>Direct transfer, connected with the region</td>
<td>Connected with micro-businesses’ demand for employees with university degrees</td>
<td>Employing a specialist supports the enterprise’s development and affects the region’s development</td>
<td>Lower salaries offered by SMEs limit the influx of educated personnel to SMEs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects of diploma projects based on industry-related issues</td>
<td>Explicit knowledge supplemented with tacit knowledge</td>
<td>Graduands apply knowledge to solve problems – based on tacit knowledge,</td>
<td>Direct utilization of knowledge in formulating the problem, and cooperation with the enterprise’s employees</td>
<td>A solution being the subject matter of a diploma project may be used by an enterprise and support the region’s development through addressing the region’s issues</td>
<td>Micro-enterprises’ problems are rarely addressed in diploma projects at institutions of higher education. This type of knowledge flow is not utilized in practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees’ enrolment at post-graduate studies, participation in courses and training sessions</td>
<td>Explicit, available knowledge</td>
<td>The participants are interested in increasing a narrow scope of their knowledge</td>
<td>The acquired knowledge is passed on in the form of lectures, practical classes, workshops</td>
<td>Direct application of knowledge within the businesses, reporting of the region’s needs</td>
<td>Micro-businesses rarely use these forms of knowledge acquisition due to financial constraints</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Presented in Table 1 are factors aiding knowledge transfer from the science area to the family micro-enterprises sector, as well as the forecast benefits which might result from such transfer. Figure 1 presents a model of knowledge diffusion effects in a family-run micro-business.
Based on my own research, it is possible to identify the passage of time between the moment of knowledge influx and the moment in which the first market effects arise – it is a short period of time, measured in weeks or months. One should note that the surveyed entrepreneurs did not treat their new solutions as innovative ones. Clearly visible in the case of family-run micro-businesses is a tendency to have no expectations regarding institutions from the science area, a strong connection to the region and preferences for short-term solutions which can be independently implemented at an affordable price. This is in stark contracts with the expectations expressed by large enterprises – these are long-term and include building lasting relations between industrial entities, research institutions and local government bodies in economically-developed regions, in particular in technologically-advanced industries dealing with production of complex industrial products. More information about researches on transferring of technology as diffusion of knowled-

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26 More information about researches on transferring of technology as diffusion of knowled-
ly micro-enterprises do notice the potential benefits of acquired knowledge; however, these are usually short-term rather than long-term effects.

Conclusions

The state of collaboration between the micro-enterprises sector and the science area – or rather the lack of such collaboration – results in little interdependency and marginal relationships between these two fields on the technical and technological plane, as well as in terms of management, cooperation and the forecasts regarding its development. Family enterprises searching for knowledge of the market, customers and contemporary management methods also seek contact with the science area. Lack of an offer on the part of scientific institutions that would be addressed to the micro-enterprises sector results in a situation where contacts between science and family-run businesses are only sporadic. The science sector should follow the example of European countries and the US to develop a cooperation model and propose a knowledge diffusion system, and create a model of knowledge absorption for family-run micro-businesses. In the course of the research, micro-entrepreneurs expressed acceptance for the idea of internships and student traineeships connected with implementation of diploma projects in micro-enterprises and service establishments.

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Innovative Character of Enterprises in Łódź Region

The notion and essence of innovation

Many-sided character of innovation makes it very difficult or even impossible to define. The notion is variously interpreted, which results both from a relatively short tradition of research on innovations and from different theoretical perspectives.

The notion of innovation was introduced into economic sciences by J. Schumpeter, who divided it into five actions:

1. launching of a new product, so far unknown to consumers, or giving new qualities to a product;
2. implementing a new manufacturing method, not yet tested in any industry;
3. starting a new market, that is a market on which a given type of domestic industry did not operate, irrespective of the fact whether the market existed earlier or not;
4. obtaining a new source of raw materials or semi-finished products, irrespective of the fact whether this source existed before or had to be created;
5. implementing a new organizational structure of an industry, e.g. creating a monopoly or breaking it [Schumpeter 1960, p. 104].

According to R.W. Griffin innovations are an effort of an organization to take control of new products and services or of new applications of the already existing products and services [Griffin 1996, p. 646]. For P.F. Drucker innovation means work that requires knowledge and also a lot of inventiveness. In order to be successful innovators must use their strengths and be emotionally prepared to make use of opportunities for innovations. Innova-
tion must always be close to the market, must be market-oriented, in fact it should be inspired by the market [Drucker 1992, p. 37].

Ph. Kotler gives another definition of innovations and considers them to be a good which is perceived as new [Kotler 1994, p. 322]. W. Janasz believes, „(...) that innovative process as an action is comprised between the first idea and the first implementation. (...) Understood in this way, innovative process means material and nonmaterial changes of elements in a given business unit. The only thing that is taken into account is a sequence of events in which cognitive states are an element of innovation. The basic event in such a process is implementation of a new product or solution in a social practice” [Janasz 1999, p. 71].

The essence of innovative policy results from two facts: the role of innovations in the economic growth and the so-called phenomenon of imperfection of self-regulating function of the market. Innovative policy should be conducted on three levels [OECD 2008]:

- macroeconomic, that is by the state,
- mesoeconomic – by the region, and
- microeconomic – by an enterprise.

According to Oslo Manual, innovative activity comprises all actions of scientific (research), technical, organizational, financial and commercial character, whose aim is to develop and implement innovation [Kaczmarska-Krawczak 2014, p. 99]. Oslo Manual lists four types of innovation:

- Product innovation – is launching of a product or service which is new or considerably improved as to their qualities or applications. This includes considerable improvements with regard to technical specifications, components and materials, user-friendliness or other functional qualities.

- Process innovations – that is implementing of a new or considerably improved method of production or delivery. This category comprises significant changes in technology of machines and/or software.

- Marketing innovation – that is implementing of a new marketing method connected with changes in the design/construction of a product or in packaging, distribution, promotion or price strategy.

- Organizational innovation – that is implementing of a new organizational method in the operating rules used by the company, in organization of work places or relations with the environment [Baruk 1996, pp. 13–29].

Contemporary enterprises need a vision of development. One of them is the strategy of innovation which, according to Baruk, comprises three areas:

- selection of techniques and technologies,
- obtaining innovations,
In his opinion in the strategy of innovation the most important are strategic innovations which are an inspiration to include all resources in the general economic strategy, they enhance creation of knowledge and inspire to transfer resources.

Innovation is often defined as an ability of an organization to permanently search, implement and spread innovations. At the moment it seems to be the basic challenge in economic management for enterprises, regions, the state, the European Union. Activities of innovative character are influenced by numerous internal factors concerning resources, experience and skills of workers, the management system in a given enterprise, and by external factors.

Innovation in business activity of enterprises – survey results

Surveys on innovative activities of enterprises included 500 firms in Łódź voivodeship, in the period from May to July 2012. A major part of respondents were private companies (46%) and limited liability companies (23.4%). 89.3% were companies built from scratch, only 5% of the companies declared that they originated as a result of merger or takeover. An important characteristic of the companies under study is their capital structure. 92.9% of companies declared „100% Polish capital”. 2.8% have prevailing share of Polish capital and 1.2% prevailing share of foreign capital. Only 3% of the companies have 100% foreign capital. Most of the enterprises were small companies – employing from 10 to 49 workers (56.1%). The share of microenterprises in the study was 24%, medium – sized enterprises – 15% and large enterprises – 4.8%.

In the survey the respondents were to describe the importance of innovation in the activity and development of the enterprise. Most answers were „important” (49.1%) and „very important” (30.3%). Only 7.5% of the surveyed answered that innovations in the activity and development of the enterprise are „of no importance”.

Table 1. Level of importance of innovation in the surveyed enterprises (in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance of innovation for development of enterprise</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>of no importance</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of little importance</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very important</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Enterprises also were asked a question on how they get ideas for new products, processes and various changes in the enterprise. In this case they could indicate three main sources of ideas, describing them as 1 – most important, 2 – very important, 3 – important. In the answers the most frequently selected option was „on the basis of our own ideas and resources (R + D works, etc)” (88.6%); then „copying somebody else’s solutions” (48.2%). „Engaging specialists (experts/scientists)” constituted 19.7% of the answers, „collaborating with other companies” 18.7% and „purchase of licence, patent, know-how” and „cooperation with other companies that have innovations” – 12.4% each. “Obtaining ideas for innovations through cooperation with scientific institutions and universities” constituted only 6.3% of the answers. The least popular (1.5%) was the method of „taking over a company which has innovations”. Detailed data as to all the variants are presented in the table below.

**Table 2. Ways of obtaining ideas for innovations in enterprises (answers in %)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obtaining ideas for innovations</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On the basis of own ideas and resources (R+D works, etc.)</td>
<td>88.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copying somebody else’s solutions</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging specialists (experts/scientists)</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase of licence, patent, know-how</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking over a company that has innovations</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with other companies</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with scientific institutions or universities</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation with other companies that have innovations</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Companies in Łódź region were also asked a question concerning implementation of innovations in the firm. In this case also three variants of the answer were possible. The most important for the biggest number of companies was „increasing competitiveness of the firm” (57.4%) and „development
of the firm” (47.4%). „Pressure from competitors” and „desire to increase profits” were indicated by 43.4% and 38.7% of respondents respectively. 34.4% of the respondents answered that market needs were the reason for implementing innovations 19% of the surveyed indicated decreasing operating costs of the company and 17.2% - increasing efficiency. Improving effectiveness of the company was chosen by 16% of the surveyed. Detailed information on all variants of the answers is given in table 3.

Table 3. Reasons for implementing innovations in the company (answers in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for implementing innovations</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pressure from competitors</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to increase profits</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing competitiveness of the firm</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of the company</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreasing costs of implementing innovations in the last 3 years</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market needs</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreasing operating costs</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing efficiency</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving effectiveness</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Enterprises have different sources of financing expenditures for innovations. In the survey companies could indicate three most important sources. The survey showed that the most important financing sources in enterprises of Łódź region are: „undivided profit” (58.4%), „contributions of partners” (44.2%) and „bank credit” (43.2%). 18.3% of the enterprises finance innovation from the funds of European Union and 18% indicate leasing as the source of financing innovations. „Issue of bonds” (0.5%), “issue of shares” (2.6%) and “venture capital or business angels funds” (1.0%) are rarely used. Answers of the surveyed are given in table 4.
Table 4. The most important sources of financing innovations in the surveyed enterprises (answers in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of financing innovations</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contributions of partners</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undivided profit</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue of shares</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venture capital funds, business angels</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank credit</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leasing</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue of bonds</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU funds</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Innovative activity of enterprises in Łódź region encounters a lot of barriers resulting both from internal conditions connected with the firms and external ones, resulting from the environment in which they operate. An important obstacle to innovative activities (companies could list three most important barriers) are primarily „high costs of preparing and implementing innovations” (82.2%). Almost 30% of the surveyed companies answered that „lack of adequately qualified personnel” and „insufficient technical base” are barriers to development of innovation. „A difficult access to specialists and advisers” was indicated by 25.5% of firms and „lack of information about technical novelties” by 17.4%. 14.4% mention „lack of sector contacts” (i.e. potential collaborators). Data on the barriers in financing innovations are presented in table 5.
### Table 5. Main barriers in development of innovative activity of enterprises (answers in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barriers in development of innovative activities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High costs of preparing and implementing innovations</td>
<td>82.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of adequately qualified personnel</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient technical base</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of information on technical novelties</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge of the market (customers’ needs, possibilities)</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult access to specialists and advisers</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sector contacts (i.e. potential collaborators)</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Conclusion

Innovative activity must be incorporated in the overall activity of an enterprise to ensure its survival and successful response to changes in the market.

Turbulent environment poses many challenges to contemporary enterprises. Innovations are now treated as one of the main driving forces of many companies. If companies want to develop, they must treat innovations as opportunities and use the resources they have to achieve competitive advantage. However, enterprises often encounter barriers in implementation of innovative solutions. The survey showed that the main barrier is lack of financial resources, but companies also mention market barriers connected with fluctuation of demand or barriers connected with access to information that supports innovative activities.

The still present low competitiveness level of Polish enterprises is an effect of the strategy realized before political transformation, when innovation was not the most important element of economic development. Therefore very important for development of innovative activity of firms is policy of the state as well as the environment which should support innovative
potential of enterprises. The offered assistance should stimulate absorption of innovations by ensuring financing implementation and diffusion of innovations and extra incentives for enterprises to create innovations.

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Abstract & key words

Anna Bąkiewicz
Small and Medium Enterprises in Poland during Global Financial Crisis

Abstract: The paper explores the reaction of small and medium enterprises in Poland to the latest global financial crisis. The experiences of Poland provide some convincing evidence that the SMEs as such do cope quite well with the economic crisis. Small firms seems to be the most sensitive to the deterioration of the economic environment, but they also are the most vigorous agent during the economic recovery. But, it becomes evident that the resistance to the negative external factors of particular subsectors of the SMEs is not standardized one. Moreover, the crisis seems to disclosure high degree of heterogeneity of the SMEs. The conclusion is that SMEs can contribute significantly to the economic recovery, but this universal truth does not have to apply to all individual components of the sector.

Key words: small and medium enterprises, global financial crisis

Marcela Rebeca Contreras Loera
The administrative process in the fishing cooperative

Abstract: Organizations have problems hindering the different processes that make her run, for that it must develop strategies that allow them to keep competitive in an increasingly difficult and changing market. The study was conducted in order to analyze the administrative process in the fishing cooperative; data collection was conducted through interviews and analysis of internal documents of the organization, under a qualitative approach. The results suggest that the cooperative establishes roadmaps for less than a year, with a written program, policies and rules defined in its statutes, defined hierarchical structure; control of the organization is in charge of monitoring president who oversees partners and managers by writing the performance of members. Based on the above it is concluded that the fishing cooperative conducts an administrative process with focus on the short term and the activities are performed in response to the regulations of the organization.

Key words: administrative process, cooperative.
Claudia Lizbeth Tirado Gálvez
Mónica Velarde Valdez

Estrategias organizacionales de la hotelería en el sector del turismo de negocios en México

Organizational strategies of hospitality in tourism business in Mexico

Abstract: Tourism is a major economic activity in the world, specifically business tourism is one of the fastest growing segments in the last decade, as it has allowed an increase in the stay demand and the increase in economic benefit that is reflected at the local, regional or state level, hence the importance of this research. This study is based on the need to improve the way companies in the hotel sector compete through the implementation of organizational strategies to respond effectively to the segment of business tourism. The present study was performed through qualitative research, specifically with a case study in one of the leading hotels in the city of Culiacan, Sinaloa, México using various data collection techniques, including: interviews with managers, employees, customer survey, observation and document analysis. Studying organizational strategy in business tourism and its relationship in the hotel industry is considered of great importance to the development of Mexico. For a company to survive in an environment of continuous and rapid changes depends primarily on its resilience and ability to face competition. In this study, results of the strategies that have been implemented in hospitality organizations in Mexico to stay in the market are presented, among which stand out: infrastructure, technology, the role of human resource and strategic training.

Key words: Organizational Strategies, business tourism, hotel industry.

Andrzej Marjański

Family business facing challenges of contemporary economy

Abstract: The turbulent and dynamic changes of the 21st century create new challenges for economies and individual enterprises. Contemporary challenges result in the necessity to change the ways of thinking and building management strategies within family businesses. This type of business forms a key element in the majority of the market economies. New challenges that contemporary family business needs to face cover the areas common to many companies as well as the fields which are strictly typical to family enterprise. In the globalization era, family business must be able to determine the globalization-related influence and interrelations. The present turbulent time imposes on the contemporary family business the ability to adjust their functioning, aims and management methods to dramatically changing conditions of their work due to processes of transformation, economic integration and technological and IT
development, which would allow for a long-term business.

**Key words:** family business, development strategy, succession, competition, globalization

Angel Nava  
Misleida Nava  
Roland Nava

Humanización como perspectiva estratégica de gestión en organizaciones productivas multiculturales y complejas

Humanization as strategic management in multicultural perspective of productive organizations and complex

**Abstract:** The investigation was directed to conduct an analysis on Multiculturalism and Complexity in Production Organizations, the Maracaibo and Cabimas Municipalities, Zulia, Venezuela. The population consisted of a total of 155 SME owner-managers of different nationalities. Data were collected using a questionnaire with multiple response scales. For the analysis of results of inferential statistics were used, according to a scale established. Concluded that both humanization and complexity in organizations depends on the presence of individuals with different behaviors and attitudes in closed opportunities, in most cases not adaptable to various cultural levels present therein, which are conceived on bio psychosocial condition of each subject and form of interaction and social integration within the organizational context. These results generate a proposal for Social Cycle and Humanized Organizations resulting in systematization, in organizational management, complexity based on multiculturalism in productive organizations.

**Key words:** Humanization, Complexity, Multiculturalism.

Czesław Zając

Corporate values as a framework of shaping of the organisational culture in capital (corporate) groups – results of the empirical research

**Abstract:** Corporate values is the core category portrayed in this paper. As a the core element of organizational culture they have to be considered as the glue in social and organizational structures of corporate groups, mainly those functioning in global (over-national scale). The paper presents the essence, character and the role of corporate values. The author of it indicates also different approaches and opinions included in the literature devoted for that topic. He analyses and evaluates the meaning of corporate values as a factor shaping the attitudes and behaviour of managers and employees in corporate groups. As an example was described corporate values and system of monitoring these values in Corporate Group IMPEL located in Wrocław. Stability, development partnership and positive image, consisting the set of core organisational culture values, are referred to as key success values of this organization. These
values are also one of the most important ‘instruments’ of strategic human resource management in this Corporate Group. Results of empirical research done by the author indicate also the fact of involving business and supporting units of IMPEL in regular monitoring of employee satisfaction for 6 years.

**Key words:** corporate values, organizational culture, corporate groups, international human resources management.

**Maik Döring**

**Challenges during market entrance in a foreign country. Use of the consulting services while entering the market - small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) in comparison with large concerns**

**Abstract:** The author in his article analyzes the challenges facing companies that want to enter foreign markets. In the article he moves on globalization and internationalization, also notes that in recent years the speed of internationalization has increased. This process has already ceased to be reserved only for large enterprises, small and medium-sized enterprises also enter into foreign markets. Author notes that the theory of internationalization can be explained in decision theory, therefore, the article introduces the term “decision” as well as the classification decision-making models. In the last chapter of his article, the author presents the results of their research. The results show that more than half of consumer products, which were not consulted, belong to small businesses. The author assumes that small and medium-sized enterprises are “resistant advisory services”. The reasons can be many, but one can assume that the main problem is the lack of financial resources.

**Key words:** small and medium enterprises, internationalization, decision making.

**Krzysztof Wach**

**Small and Medium-sized Enterprises in the Modern Economy**

**Abstract:** The objective of this chapter is to present and discuss various criteria enabling to define the size of the business unit, distinguishing, micro, small, medium-sized and large enterprises, as well as to outline the importance and role of the SME sector in the modern economy. The chapter is based on the literature review and its critics, what is else, statistical data were used to illustrate the elaborated themes. The chapter is divided into three main merit passages. In the first part of this chapter outlines the quantitative and qualitative criteria for defining enterprise size class. The second part of this chapter discusses various definitions of SMEs used in the European Union, as well as other organisations such as the World Bank, OECD, UNIDO, APEC, but also in such countries as the USA, or Japan. In the third part of the chapter, it discusses the role of small and medium-sized enterprises in the economy,
with particular emphasis on their links to the country’s economic growth and employment.

**Key words:** small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs); economy; entrepreneurship, economic policy.

**Rodrigo Naranjo Arango**  
**Mario González Arencibia**  

**Formación gerencial asistida por las tecnologías de la información y la comunicación**  

**Management training in Information and Communication Technology**

**Abstract:** Since the beginning of XXI century, there are unexpected changes in the world. It is urgent to vary the processes of professional training, it can not leave aside the impact of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), which stands for the development of new educational models. It is imperative to change the approaches, principles and ways of organizing management training in order to deploy its application in correspondence with the socio-cultural context of business, regardless of the country. In this sense, this paper offers some ideas on the latest trends of the impact of ICT on education, which might be useful to address the processes of change in the turbulent times of management.

**Key words:** ICT, education, training, management.

**Krystyna Leszczewska**

**The business model as a concept of enterprise management in a turbulent environment**

**Abstract:** The paper presents the concept of the business model as a tool for business management. The business model is one of the new concepts of management, which is used by companies seeking to achieve competitive advantage. In the world literature from the mid-90s the issue of the business model is increasingly being taken as the area of theoretical analysis and empirical research. The author discusses in the article the possibility of using the concept of business model in business management in the conditions of dynamic changes in the environment.

**Key words:** business model, management concept, turbulent environment
Ernesto León Castro  
Luis Alessandri Pérez Arellano  

Conciliation as an extrajudicial solution decision of labor conflicts in the business enterprise

Abstract: The globalization of markets has increased the demand within them, in this sense the companies within them require to make appropriate decisions in order that they can make profits in these scenarios of uncertainty, so that is necessary to have a peaceful working environment. For this purpose the organizations need to use alternative means to reach agreements within the labor disputes that are accepted and beneficial for both sides, this can be achieved with the use of alternative dispute resolution such as conciliation extrajudicial, which allows savings in time and money carrying with traditional judgments and offer improvement in the internal working environment within the organization. In this article we present the results of how the commercial enterprise resolves their labor disputes and the effects these have within them, concluding that that decision makers do not know all the alternative of solution that this kind of business problems can have, such as the use of conciliation extrajudicial, impacting directly on corporate finance and the workplace environment.

Key words: Conciliation extrajudicial, decision making, labor disputes, commercial enterprise.

Ewa Więcek-Janka  

Processes and models of change in family businesses

Abstract: The paper presents models of changes in family businesses and the results of this subject carried out in 2012–2014 in Poland. Research results include the variables succession, leadership styles and factors of changes.

Key words: family business, succession, changes.

Renata Lisowska  
Jarosław Ropęga  

The Role of Innovation in Preventing Economic Failure of Small Businesses

Abstract: The existing literature, as well as research on business failure, indicate that this phenomenon should be regarded from a strategic perspective. On the one hand, through creating a strategy that reduces the risk of business failure of a company and, on the other hand, through improving the efficiency of the support system offered by business environment institutions. The study conducted by the authors shows that innovations implemented in an enterprise are one of significant factors reducing the risk of business failure. Their
implementation requires support on the part of business environment institutions which, according to the surveyed entrepreneurs, is insufficient. The aim of the paper is to assess the role of the implemented innovations in reducing the risk of economic failure of a small business. **Key words:** small businesses, business failure, support system, innovation, barriers to implementing innovations.

**Zofia Patora-Wysocka**

**Organizational change and processual approach: some epistemological considerations**

**Abstract:** The paper reconsiders the premises of qualitative and quantitative research strategy in relation to organizational change problems. The studies used the processual cognitive perspective, which explores the context of changes from the perspective of enterprises’ everyday functioning. Usually, in the case of processual perspective ethnographic research strategy is preferred. Nevertheless, it is argued here that non-ethnomethodological tactics can also be considered a proper method. The aim of the article is an attempt to indicate factors differentiating the occurrence of organizational changes in clothing and textile enterprises based on qualitative methods. The aspects indicated in the research can be the predictors of areas that should be explored as part of in-depth qualitative studies. **Key words:** organizational change, processual approach, research strategy, empirical studies.

**Judeira Batista  
Edison Perozo**

**Pensamiento estratégico: una alternativa para gerenciar en tiempos de crisis en contextos empresariales colombo-venezolanos**

**Strategic thinking: an alternative to manage in times of crisis in business context colombo-venezolanos**

**Abstract:** The present research was to generate an approach of strategic thinking as an alternative to manage in times of crisis in Colombian-Venezuelan business contexts. Its theoretical foundation was supported by the theoretical approach of strategic thinking as in the case of: Senge [2000] Fisher and Sharp [1999], Morrisey and Arenas [1996], Steiner [1998] and contexts and DEFINITION crisis authors as Ohmae [2004], Coles [2003], Astudillos [2012], Álvaro Marín Hoyos [2002], Agudelo [2013], Coles [2003], Perez [2006]. The methodology used was documentary, analytical and field according to Hurtado [2006]. The population consisted of 10 active members of the organizations that bring together entrepreneurs, 10 professors from universities, 10 owners of small and medium enterprises, 10 professional 10 non-professional but experienced
in management business. For a total of 50 subjects. The interview technique was employed, using an instrument such as interview script. The findings indicate the conceptual principles of strategic thinking, cited by Ohmae [2004], who defines and consider the analysis that the manager should seek to clearly understand the peculiarity of the parties and then using the brain, restructure these elements to be compared with other definitions and establish a definition based on the study results. In this regard also considered the purpose of strategic thinking postulates raised by Rick [Perozo 2006], which states that strategic thinking is associated with future challenges, both predictable and unpredictable preparing for a probable single morning. The importance of strategic thinking for the analysis of the crisis in Venezuela Colombian context is further accentuated since taken a decision whatever in the managerial level, must be based on a clear vision considering the intuitive and cognitive manager.

**Key words:** strategic thinking, managing in times of crisis, Venezuelans Colombo contexts.

**Eugenio Pedrozo**

**Proposition of BOP 3.0 as an alternative model of business for bop (base of pyramid) producers: Case study in Amazonia**

**Abstract:** The base of pyramid theory has boosted and redirected the studies to the creation of consumption opportunities for poor people (BOP 1.0). This guidance has been advancing, to what is here called BoP 2.0, bringing up the logics of creating a shared fortune with BoP, by co-inventions and co-productions. This model has been criticized, mainly, because of the difficulties which the big companies have to explore economies of scale in BoP markets inasmuch as, the ones who do the valuable creation or co-creation is the organization, mainly, multinational companies or medium-sized undertakings. Therefore, there is a gap regarding to the role of the producers (small producers) themselves, from BoP, in existing approaches. In this way, the purpose of this article is to propose and apply a new alternative model of business, called BoP 3.0, whereupon the producers, poor and impoverished, from BOP, are the main protagonists. The application was performed through a study of case, qualitative, with secondary and primary data collection performed with 75 producers from the organization denominated RECA, in Rondônia/Brazil, in the Amazon wide biome. In the analyses it was used the content analyses and abductive logic. The contributions and the results found are: self-management (organization and production strategy and management under the governance of BoP’s own producers); immediate ownership of the results by the BoP’s producers; “natural” adoption of agroforestry production systems; performers and entrepreneurs – they are service and products suppliers to local, regional, national and international markets, and others.

**Key words:** Model of business, BOP.
Elizabeth Olmos-Martínez
Marcela Rebeca Contreras-Loera
Karina Donoso Fernández
Alejandra Daniela Mendizábal Cortés

Government funding programs for sustainable tourism projects in Mexico

Abstract: This work shows the programs of the government in Mexico, fund projects of sustainable tourism within protected areas, and presents an analysis of such program’s performance. The research was conducted through desk research on the Internet portals of the federal government. The results indicate that there are eight funding programs for sustainable tourism in protected areas with different characteristics according to the rules of each operation of. The chronological analysis of results indicates that the assessment of efficiency and effectiveness is linked with the budget allocated to each program as well as the target population.

Key words: government program, funding, ecotourism, protected natural areas.

Krzysztof Safin

Succession potential and succession practices of Polish family enterprises

Abstract: Family businesses face the challenge of succession strategies. The article presents the results of tests carried out on 390 Polish family companies. The main assumptions are related to route selection analysis by the owners and successors.

Key words: family enterprises, succession processes, strategy.

Hilda Teresa Ramírez Alcántara
Graciela Carrillo González

El desarrollo sustentable, los impactos y beneficios de los proyectos de energía eólica en la región del Istmo de Tehuantepec

Sustainable development, effects, benefits of wind energy projects in the region of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec in Mexico

Abstract: Changes in the global environment challenge the creation of new organizational models with a sustainable strategic orientation. The creation of companies that produce alternative energy is generating advantages to certain sectors at the expense of environmental, social and economic impacts on host communities.

The aim of this research is to analyze the environmental, economic and social impacts with the sustainable development model and to present some benefits of wind energy projects in the region of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec in Mexico.
The guiding question is: Do the expected benefits of wind energy projects in Mexico exceed current social, economic and environmental impacts? The methodology is qualitative, based on interviews with those involved in projects, and using literature and hemerographic sources. Nowadays, large companies have benefited from federal and local governments by establishing wind farms in the Isthmus, and landowners have received low payments with the occupation of thousands of hectares where they have installed wind farms. It is necessary to have an inclusive social model with a sustainable development perspective that benefits all stakeholders.  

**Key words:** sustainable development, wind energy.

**Katarzyna Staniszewska**  
**Justyna Marjańska**

**The process of motivation through the wages in small and medium-sized enterprises**

**Abstract:** The aim of this article is the analysis of the human resource management process in small and medium-sized enterprises and indicating the importance of implementing effective motivational tools in the workplace. Managers are conscious of how important a motivated employee is for accomplishing the tasks of a team, as well as the whole organization. The authors present the importance and complexity of a motivational process. They also indicate that it does not always coincide with everyday life. The authors focused on remuneration, which constitutes an important motive comprising of a basic salary, bonus and tangible and intangible rewards. **Key words:** human resource management, motivating, small and medium-sized enterprises.

**Aparecida de Fátima Alves de Lima**

**Desafíos en la organización y en la gestión de las cooperativas de pequeños productores rurales**

**Challenges in the organization and management of cooperative organizations of family farmers**

**Abstract:** Undoubtedly, the cooperative is a concrete human activity, which reflects the historical moment in time when this was manifested. Therefore, different cooperative practices are in the literature throughout the history of mankind. In general, the cooperative with a popular character presupposes democracy in its processes, as well as the requirement of a commitment from those associated with their rights and obligations and all work within the cooperative is developed by the partner. This research was conducted with a sample of collective organizations of rural workers in the city of Tangará da Serra, which is located in the southwestern region of the state of Mato Grosso, Brazil.
The general objective was to identify the main factors that design the structure and performance of cooperative organizations of family farmers in Tangará da Serra. The focus of this research is characterized as qualitative, quantitative and descriptive.

**Key words:** cooperative, organization, management, competitiveness, self-management.

Jan Klimek  
Jacek Lipiec

The Social Role of Family Firms: The case of the Pelion Healthcare Group

**Abstract:** This article analyzes the Pelion Healthcare Group and its involvement in the Corporate Social Responsibility practices. The Pelion is public company which the CSR reporting is advanced. The advancement means going beyond many companies clichés of being CSR involved and instead using the Global Reporting on Sustainability and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) among others. We found that the Pelion is unique in using these frameworks to capture CSR. In particular, we were interested in examining the involvement of the Pelion in serving on behalf of local societies.

**Key words:** family firm, social responsibility, local impact, Global Reporting Initiative.

Martin Leon Santiesteban  
Jorge Gastelum Escalante


**Abstract:** Planning requires action, but lack of further analysis of the economy and in specific tourism, is something that worries both the Government and scholars. This research includes results in the six-year period of time, in the case of the Governments National and State, and triennial for the municipalities, which are evidence of results on the behavior shown by tourists in Sinaloa.

It is important to ask the following questions to understand the design of tourism development plans: what happened with the planning of tourism development in Sinaloa, what is the intellectual capacity of those who develop the planning of tourism in the State and what is the role of those who are responsible for the decision-making?

Assertions as science, economic growth and public policy have been helpful in the case of tourism.

**Key words:** tourism sector, competitiveness, economic policy.
**Danuta Janczewska**

**Selected Aspects of Knowledge Diffusion in a Family Micro-Enterprise**

**Abstract:** The business and economic role of family enterprises – which do not formulate long-term strategies and lack sufficient material resources required to openly compete for customers – has been the subject of research and studies in the US, Europe and other parts of the world [Peraza 2013, p. 125]. In case of family-run businesses from the micro-enterprises sector, short-term measures cannot guarantee that the firm will gain and maintain any market advantage; instead, customer-gaining methods effective over a longer-term perspective are indispensable. Also, the use of individual, separate concepts of enterprise management streamlining will not unconditionally yield the expected benefits in the form of measurable financial results or specific market shares. Therefore, systemic methods are needed, methods that will combine the actions of individual departments or those of individual employees of the enterprise. The purpose of the this article is to demonstrate the impact of a micro-enterprise's competencies on the process of knowledge diffusion. Presented herein will be my own research conducted on a group of 100 SMEs from the Lodz, Kuyavian-Pomeranian and Mazovian Voivodeships (Provinces), whose focus was on defining actions which aid knowledge diffusion.

**Key words:** knowledge management, knowledge diffusion, micro enterprise, family business.

**Jadwiga Kaczmarska-Krawczak**

**Innovative character of enterprises in Łódź region**

**Abstract:** In Poland enterprises present a low level of innovation, which results mainly from the lack of their own resources for purchases or modernization of new technologies. One of the effects is manufacturing of lower quality products. However, one can expect that innovation will be increasingly seen as a necessary element of the enterprises' development and an important aim in their strategies.

The aim of this paper is to analyze and assess the innovative character of enterprises of the Łódź region.

**Key words:** innovations, development.