IZZIVI UPORABNIH POSLOVNIH IN DRUŽBENIH ŠTUDIJ

Monografija DOBA Fakultete 2018

CHALLENGES OF APPLIED BUSINESS AND SOCIAL STUDIES

2018 Monograph of the DOBA Business School

Rasto Ovin, Pedja Ašanin Gole, Anita Maček

uredniki | Editors

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Challenges of Applied Business and Social Studies: 2018 Monograph of the DOBA Business School

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Predgovor

Pred vami je tretja letna monografija iz zbirke DOBA Fakultete Spoznanja iz ekonomskih ter uporabnih poslovnih in družbenih študij, ki prinaša 22 prispevkov, ki so uspešno prestali dvojni anonimni recenzijski postopek. Poslanstvo zbirke je prikazati rezultate raziskav, ki so jih pripravili déležniki fakultete. Ponosni smo, da pričujoča monografija ponovno vključuje najpomembnejše déležnike naše šole: najprej so to zaposleni učitelji in učitelji, ki z nami pogodbeno sodelujejo, tokrat pa tudi nekaj kolegov iz drugih fakultet, ki pogosto sodelujejo z našimi učitelji. Še naprej si prizadevamo vključiti v naše publikacije prispevke naših diplomantov, online mentorjev in zaposlenih v strokovnih službah. Že leta na naši šoli gradimo takšno vključujočo raziskovalno kulturo in ponosni smo, da njeno funkcioniranje lahko pokažemo tudi v obliki znanstvene monografije.

DOBA Fakulteta namenja kar nekaj virov raziskovanju ne le področij uporabnih poslovnih in družbenih študij, temveč tudi uporabe tehnologij online študija in pedagoške didaktike. To upoštevamo kot eno ključnih poslanstev naše fakultete. V času, ko se v visoko šolstvo vpisuje okoli 50 % generacije mladih, je treba sistem izobraževanja in usposabljanja prilagoditi tudi tistemu delu populacije, ki potrebuje specialna znanja na višji ravni, nima pa potrebe ali motivacije, da bi spoznaval stroko v globljem teoretičnem smislu in sestavljal svoje znanje z abstraktnimi pojmi in situacijami. Ne le s tem spoznanjem in njegovim vključevanjem v naše delovanje, temveč tudi z raziskovanjem na tem področju si prizadevamo biti v toku s sodobnimi trendi v izobraževanju za ta del populacije in upamo, da kot eden njegovih nosilcev.

Letošnja monografija prinaša besedila v glavnem v angleškem jeziku. Zavedamo se našega poslanstva, da pripomoremo k razvoju strokovne terminologije v domačem jeziku in temu sledimo v naših številnih edicijah. Vseeno pa se ne moremo izogniti obveznostim, ki jih pomeni mednarodna naravnanost naše fakultete, sistem napredovanja učiteljev v Sloveniji in navsezadnje tudi želena mednarodna prepoznavnost. Na tem področju je prav letos fakulteta kot edina v regiji uspela pridobiti najzahtevnejšo evropsko akreditacijo za online študij EFMD OECCS. Vzdrževanje še ene akreditacije bo zahtevno in je tako tudi pričujoča monografija eden od instrumentov, s katerim želimo to doseči.

Maribor, december 2018

<div align="right">
Rasto Ovin
Pedja Ašanin Gole
Anita Maček
</div>

FOREWORD

This book represents the third annual monograph from the DOBA Business School collection *Lessons from economic and applied business and social studies*, which brings 22 chapters that have successfully passed the double anonymous review process. The mission of the collection is to present the results of research prepared by the faculty members and other faculty stakeholders. We are proud that this monograph again includes the most important stakeholders of our school: first of all, these are our regular teaching staff and teachers who are engaged with the school as adjunct lectures, and this time also some colleagues from other schools who often work with our teachers. We are continuing our efforts to include in our publications the contributions of our graduates, online mentors and professional faculty staff. We have been building such an inclusive research culture at our school for years, and we are proud that its functioning can also be shown in the form of a scientific monograph.

The DOBA Business School dedicates a lot of resources to research not only the fields of applied business and social studies, but also for the research of pedagogical didactics and use of technologies for online study, research at of modern teaching and learning as well as seeking for new ways of developing of online study. We consider this as one of the key missions of our school. At a time when about 50% of the young generation is enrolled in higher education, the education and training system must also be adapted to the part of the population that needs special skills at a higher level, but does not have the need or motivation to learn the profession in a deeper theoretical sense and composed his knowledge with abstract theoretical concepts and situations. Not only this recognition and its involvement in our work, but also our research in this field, we strive to keep pace with modern trends in education for this part of the population, and we hope that as one of its holders.

This year's monograph brings chapters mainly in English. We are aware of our mission to help develop professional terminology in the native language, and we follow this in our numerous editions. Nevertheless, we cannot avoid the obligations of the international orientation of our school, the system of teacher advancement in Slovenia, and ultimately the desired international recognition. In this area, this year the DOBA Business School as the only one in the region managed to obtain the most demanding EFMD OECCS accreditation for online studies. Maintaining another accreditation will be challenging and therefore the current monograph is one of the instruments with we want to achieve this.

Maribor, December 2018

Rasto Ovin
Pedja Ašanin Gole
Anita Maček

Mednarodno poslovanje, menedžment v turizmu, menedžment pametnih mest

International Busines and Management,
Tourism,
and Smart Cities

1 Transfer of Social Capital in Correlation with Innovativeness of the Next Family Generation in Family Businesses

Marina Letonja* | Mitja Jeraj**

Abstract: *Little is known about the factors, which are positively correlated, or affect innovativeness of successors in smaller family businesses (SFB). Our research explores the relationship between social capital of the founders in SFB and innovativeness of their successors in Slovenia. In order to investigate the relationship between these two constructs the Pearson correlation coefficient was used. We have found that for the innovativeness of the successors, the structural dimension of social capital is of particular importance, which refers to the willingness of the founder to share the information with the successor, and as well the cognitive dimension of social capital that refers to the founder's and successor's common vision of the future of SFB. The transferability of social capital among generations in SFB is of strategic importance for the continuity and sustainable development of SFB in Slovenia.*

Keywords: family business, innovation management, innovativeness, successor, social capital, Slovenia

Prenos socialnega kapitala v povezavi z inovativnostjo naslednje generacije v družinskih podjetjih

Povzetek: *Malo je znanega o dejavnikih, ki so pozitivno povezani ali vplivajo na inovativnost naslednikov v manjših družinskih podjetjih (MDP). Naša raziskava raziskuje odnos med socialnim kapitalom ustanoviteljev v MDP in inovativnostjo njihovih naslednikov v Sloveniji. Da bi raziskali odnos med tema dvema konstruktoma, smo uporabili Pearsonov koeficient korelacije. Ugotovili smo, da je za inovativnost naslednikov posebno pomembna strukturna razsežnost socialnega kapitala, ki se nanaša na pripravljenost ustanovitelja, da informacije deli z naslednikom, pa tudi kognitivno razsežnost socialnega kapitala, ki se nanaša na skupno vizijo ustanovitelja in naslednika o prihodnosti MDP. Prenosljivost socialnega kapitala med generacijami v MDP je strateškega pomena za kontinuiteto in trajnostni razvoj MDP v Sloveniji.*

Ključne besede: *družinsko podjetništvo, inovacijski management, inovativnost, naslednik, socialni kapital, Slovenija*

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1   Introduction

In most economies the importance of family businesses is significant and research interest for family entrepreneurship is growing, although focused on the field of succession, and very limited on the field of innovativeness of Smaller Family Business (SFB) (Letonja, 2016). In Slovenia the study by Antončič, Auer Antončič, and Juričič (2015) reveals that 83 % of all companies are family businesses – micro, small, medium-sized and large and that they contribute 69 % of GDP and 70 % of employments.

The theoretical framework of our paper is in the resource-based theory (RBT) in connection with entrepreneurship theory (family business). What counts in RBT is that production resources, which are often linked to the founder and his business, due to their tacit dimension and social complexity cannot be replicated. Tacit resources are difficult to be observed, described or evaluated, but they have a large impact on competitive edge of the firm (Letonja, 2016). Such a socially complex production resource is social capital of the founder/family in an SFB. Over the past fifteen years, the RBT has been widely used in research on various topics in the field of family business (FB) and family entrepreneurship (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003), organizational social capital (Arregle et al., 2007), succession (Cabrera-Suárez et al., 2011, in Rau, 2014), organizational culture (Zahra, Hayton, and Salvato, 2004) and other. The foundation of our research is the emerging RBT of FBs (Rau, 2014) concentrating on the drivers of family social capital and their impact on the SFB's social capital, on how the specific resources of the family shape SFB's competitiveness, on different dimensions of social capital (structural, cognitive dimension) (Adler and Kwon, 2002).

In this paper, we limit our research to the transfer of social capital of the founder of the SFB to the second generation/successors of SFB. The transfer of the FB between the first and the second generation is found to be the most problematic generational transfer (e.g., Miller et al., 2003) as only 30 % of the FBs survive this phase (Duh, Letonja, and Vadnjal, 2015). The focus of our research is micro, small and medium-sized FBs in Slovenia.

The main goal of our research is to increase our understanding of the role of social capital of the founder of an SFB in successors' innovativeness. The main research question is: *Is the transfer of the social capital of the founder into SFB positively related to the innovativeness of the next generation in SFB?* We begin our paper with the theoretical framework, followed by the methods – sample and data collection and description of measures are presented. We continue with the results, discussion and end our paper with conclusions - contributions, implications for theory, practice, limitations, and future research opportunities.

1.1   Social capital

Social capital is a sum of resources and abilities in a network of relationships between businesses and/or people (Steier, 2001). The scope and quality of social capital in the

company facilitates cooperation and increases the mobility of knowledge and sharing of this between businesses and people. The use of the theory of social capital in organizations was proposed by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998, 243), who defined social capital as "the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded in, accessible through and coming from the network of links that an individual or a company has". Since social capital reflects a complex set of dynamic links that exist within a group, social capital is difficult to quantify and imitate (Dess and Shaw, 2001), and is often based on the unique circumstances and interactions present in a specific environment. Social capital can influence the formation of intellectual capital, internal learning, interaction with suppliers, product innovation and entrepreneurship (Adler and Kwon, 2002). It provides information, technological know-how, access to markets and complementary resources. In examining the SFBs from the point of view of social capital, special attention is paid to how the potentially dominant group (for example, the family) can take advantage of the benefits associated with social capital (Arregle et al., 2007). Academics often conceptualized social capital as a recognizable set of resources embedded in links (eg. Burt, 1992). Burt's view is focused on external links and on the benefits arising from structural shortcomings in the network of links (Adler and Kwon, 2002). Coleman (1990, 302) interprets social capital as an internal phenomenon: "One aspect of a social structure that eases certain actions of individuals in this structure." Adler and Kwon (2002) synthesized the differences between sources of social capital as the discrepancy between "bridge-over" social capital and "connecting" social capital. Bridging capital derives from external orientation to direct or indirect links between those within the collective network and those outside the collective network. The benefits of bridging capital can be far-reaching and may include increased ability to collect information, the ability to access power or better networking, or the ability to better recognize opportunities (Adler and Kwon, 2002). On the contrary, academics have argued that dwellers in collective networks are formed with the help of connecting social capital. From these dense networks, resources can be formed over time, which include trust and connectivity (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Sharma, 2008). The social interactions, structure, and power of connections that exist in the family can influence the development of internal social capital. The complexity of social capital refers to many issues that exist in the SFBs, including "norms, values, co-operation, vision, purpose and trust" (Pearson et al., 2008).

Arregle et al. (2007) argue that "if the family works better than most of its non-family competitors, this is partly due to having strong family social capital". Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) defined three dimensions of internal social capital: structural, relational, and cognitive. In our research we focus on the two dimesions of internal social capital: structural and cognitive. Inkpen and Tsang (2005) say that the structural dimension are resources that represent social interactions and communication, including patterns and the power of connections between family members; it is based on network connections and configuration; cognitive dimension are resources that provide a common opinion, vision and purpose for family members - thus, reflecting the common purpose and use

created through existing links in an organization or group; it is based on common language and narratives. Social capital, according to Coleman (1988), influences the formation of human capital in the next generations in the SFB and complements the company's innovation capacity (Steier, 2001).

The structural dimension of internal social capital can be studied through the openness and quality of communication channels between family members and family members and non-family members in the SFB (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). Ganzaroli et al. (2006) note that there are SFB patterns of connections based on fair communication and information shared by family members, which promotes mobility and knowledge sharing between family members and other employees. This factor contributes to strengthening innovation.

Talking the cognitive dimension of internal social capital in the SFB, research has shown that family members in the SFB often have a deep-seated, collective understanding of their SFB's culture, which often creates a common vision and purpose so non-family businesses are difficult to imitate (Lansberg, 1999). A shared vision enables the SFB to develop a strong and long-term level of social understanding and produce the level of internal social capital that can be used to create economic and non-economic value in the company.

1.2 Innovativeness

Lynch, Walsh and Harrington (2010) reviewed and compiled various publications and definitions of innovation: "readiness to change" (Hurt et al., 1977); "inborn personality traits" (Midgley and Dowling, 1978); "relationship and behavior" (Goldsmith and Hofacker, 1991); "innovation reflects a behavioral change in response to an impulse" (Stamboulis and Skyannis, 2003); "openness of the mind, entrepreneurship, readiness to change, the ability to innovate or to be creative" (Bethon et al., 1999); »the ability of the company to introduce new processes, products, or ideas into a company (Hult et al., 2004); "concept of enterprise creativity" (Amabile, 1997); "inclination, responsiveness, and acceptance of ideas deriving from a general approach to business" (Menguc and Auh, 2006, 66); "generalized readiness to follow new paths and be creative" (Marcati et al., 2008); "it is related to the notion of risk" (Cowart et al., 2007). All these definitions of innovation have something in common: at least five key dimensions stand out (Lynch, Walsh and Harrington, 2010): creativity, openness to new ideas, risk readiness and technological ability to innovate.

Innovativeness is the ability of a company or an individual to innovate (Hult et al., 2004), is the result of innovation ability and is reflected in innovation (Keh et al., 2007). Innovativeness of the founder plays an important role in the company, but it is not necessary - for example, founder is not innovative, but is open to innovation; but there are, for example, employees in the company who are innovative and consequently the company is innovative.

1.3 Social capital of founders and innovativeness of successors in SFBs

The most important issue for cooperation between the founder and the successor is trust (eg. Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Salvato and Melin, 2006). Family businesses often attach a high level of trust (Steier, 2001). The higher the level of trust, the greater the level of openness (which enables cooperation and relates to the free flow of genuine information among family members), and there are greater opportunities and preparedness, especially for the creation, sharing and transfer of knowledge in a given period of time (Koskinen, 2003).

The Laforet survey (2012) found that innovation in the SFBs follows the life cycles of the company - companies are most innovative at the beginning and with maturity their innovativeness is declining. Laforet (2012) also notes that while the SFB is moving into later stages of development when it is taken over by successors, the social capital of the family is reduced compared to the period when the company was led by the founder, which can reduce innovation. Lee, Lim and Lim (2003) and Steier (2001) note that the transfer of social capital to the next generation is crucial to maintaining the company and the long-term development, as well as openness to interaction and cooperation across geographical and technological boundaries. Chrisman et al. (2005) add that innovation must demonstrate social value, i.e. usefulness in order to have lasting economic value.

A strong link between the founder and the successor, as well as a strong connection with other family and non-family members in SFB increases the transfer of knowledge, both tacit and explicit; also, the founder's trust in the successor and his ability increases the transfer of knowledge and information and the level of openness (Light and Dana, 2013). The level of openness increases the flow of information and knowledge, encourages cooperation and influences the perception of new opportunities. All this increases the successor's innovativeness in the SFB.

Our assumption is that social capital of founders in SFBs can be passed to the successors and increases their innovativeness. Entrepreneurs are catalysts for innovation processes and should promote the process of sharing knowledge across the company's boundaries and also provide access to new knowledge that is relevant to the future development of the company's innovation capacity. This activates social capital, which is strategically important for the company's innovation. So, our assumption is in line with Lee, Lim and Lim (2003) and Steier (2001), who say that transfer of social capital to the next generation is of key importance for maintaining the company and long-term development, as well as openness to interaction and cooperation through geographical and technological boundaries.

Our main thesis is:
H0: *»Innovativeness of successors in SFBs in a transition economy is positively correlated with transfer of social capital of the founder to the next generation in SFBs«.*

Since based on our data it is almost impossible to test hypothesis H0, we will partially test it with the following two hypotheses:

H1: *"Structural dimension of social capital of the founder in an SFB affects innovativeness of successors in SFB."*

H2: *"Cognitive dimension of social capital of the founder in an SFB affects innovativeness of successors in SFB."*

2 Methods

2.1 Sample and data collection

In our study we adopted a quantitative empirical research approach. It was focused on social capital of the founders in SFBs as one of the factors influencing innovativeness of successors in SFBs. We collected a sample that refers to small and medium-sized enterprises (from 10 to 249 employees) and sole proprietors in Slovenia (micro companies, 0 to 9 employees). The constraint to be included in the sample was that the owner/founder of the company was actively present (either active and employed, or retired, still active or procurator), and also that at least partially the next generation of the company is present (either an active and employed successor or successor, already involved in the SFB, but not yet employed). We used an additional criterion with which the SFBs were divided into SFBs of the first and the second generation: second generation SFBs are companies where the founders have already transferred ownership or management to the successors. The survey covered 408 SFBs. The sample is a random handy. The database of companies has been collected by the authors for many years and contains more than 400 SFBs.

We decided to conduct a survey with the help of a web survey tool (1ka.si). For the sampling we selected a "top management team" (TMT) approach, involving more interviewees from the company. We sent two survey questionnaires, compiled according to the research objectives, to the selected companies with the request to be answered by two key persons from the SFB - one completed by the founder and the second by the successor or one of the successors. Both respondents rated themselves, each other and the company, and its innovativeness. The first question to the founder was: "Do you consider your company as a family business?" Using this approach, used by different authors, eg. Chua, Chrisman and Sharma (1999); Llach and Nordquist (2010), we avoid the danger that the answers would not be representative. Survey questionnaires were composed of 5 sets of questions.

We designed closed-ended questions, well suited for the verification of the survey, as they are enabling generalization (Zelenika, 2000). Closed-ended questions do not allow in-depth answers. This weakness is replaced by enabling quicker answers by respondents and easier processing of data (Easterby-Smith et al., 2005). The Likert scale was used in all questionnaires. It is suitable for further statistical analysis because already at the level of the variables (questions or arguments) it provides ordinal measurement level (Letonja, 2016). Our goal was to obtain the answers of 100 SFBs or

Table 1: Basic demographic characteristics of the sample: founders/successors

Variable	Structure of answers/characteristics	
Family business	Yes, the SFB is a FB	100,0 %
Average age of an SFB	103 family SFBs	23.5 years
Average number of employed in an SFB	All employed	30.26
Average number of employed family members in an SFB	Employed family members	2.77
Dominant activity of the SFB	production (28)	27.2%
	services (48)	46.6%
	trade (27)	26.2%
Region	Podravska (12)	11.6%
	Osrednjeslovenska (36)	35.0%
	Obalno-kraška (15)	14.6%
	Others	38.8%
Gender – founder	male (85)	82.5%
	female (18)	17.5%
Gender – successor	male (63)	61.2%
	female (40)	38.8%
Transfer of management and/or ownership	management (27)	26.2%
	ownership - entirely (2)	1.9%
	ownership – partially (5)	4.9%
	management and ownership (20)	19.4%
	plan to transfer management (15)	14.6%
	plan to transfer ownership (4)	3.9%
	do not plan transfer of management or of ownership in the next 5 years (30)	29.1%
Generation of the SFB according to transfer of management and ownership	The first generation (82)	79.6%
	The second generation (21)	20.4%
Education founder	Vocational (19)	18.4%
	High school – techn. (27)	26.2%
	High school – general (14)	13.6%
	Bachelor' degree – business (12)	11.7%
	Bachelor' degree – techn. (14)	13.6%
	Other (17)	16.5%
Education successor	High school – techn. (16)	15.5%
	High school – technical (23)	22.4%
	Bachelor' degree - business (35)	34.0%
	Other (29)	18.1%
Successor's working experience prior to employment in an SFB	No prior working experience before employing in an SFB (45)	43.7%
	Work in another company – internship up to 3 months (13)	12.6%
	Work in another company over one year – different industry (23)	22.3%
	Other working experience (22)	21.4%

(Source: Letonja, 2016)

100 founders and 100 successors from the same SFB. 25% of the addressed SFBs participated in the survey. The empirical research was conducted at 103 SFBs, which completed 206 questionnaires - 103 for founders and 103 for successors; survey questionnaires were fully met.

All founders and successors from 103 SFBs have declared that they consider their company as FB. The average age of SFB in the study is 23.5 years. First-generation SFBs dominate (79.6%, N = 103) compared to the second-generation SFBs (20.4%, N = 103). The sample includes 54 (52.4%) micro, 30 (29.1%) small and 19 (18.5%) medium-sized companies. Although the sample is dominated by micro companies (0-9 employees), the average number of employees is 30, of which 3 are family members (2.77). The sample of 103 SFBs dominates with 46.6% (48) service companies, followed by production with 27.2% (28) and trade companies with 26.2% (27). The research involved SFBs from all of the Slovenian regions, but the Zasavje region. Most of the SFBs are from the Osrednjeslovenska region (36; 35.6%) and the least from the Carinthian region (1; 1.0%). The founders are mostly active and employed in the SFB (59; 57.3%). The sample is dominated by male successors (63; 61.2%). The successors are mostly active, actively involved, employed and/or at one of the leading posts (65; 63.1%). The level of education in the sample is dominated by founders with secondary school-technical orientation (27; 26.2%), while successors mostly have a high school-business orientation (35; 34.0%). One potential successor is already identified in 50 SFBs (48.5%), more than one potential successor has been identified in 39 (37.9) SFBs, and 14 (13.6%) founders have not yet identified the successor. In the 27 SFBs (26.2%), the founders have already transferred the management to the next generation, in 20 (19.4%) management and ownership, in 5 SFBs (4.9%) they carried out a partial transfer of ownership and the total transfer of ownership was carried out only in 2 SFBs 1,9%).

2.2 Description of measures

In our research, the successor's innovativeness was measured by JPI (Jackson Personality Inventory), adapted from Jackson (1994) by Mueller and Thomas (2000). The successor who reaches the JPI (Jackson, 1976) score is a creative and inventive individual, capable of original thinking, motivated to develop new solutions to problems, appreciates new ideas, he improves the work. In the scale for measuring the successor's inovativeness, we included eight statements: "I often surprise people with my new ideas"; "People often ask me to help with creative activities"; "I am more satisfied if I develop a novel idea as if I master a skill"; "I prefer work that requires original thinking"; "Usually I do not continue with work as I was used to do"; "I prefer work which requires inventiveness as skills and practice"; "I am a very creative person"; "I like to experiment with different styles of doing the same things." The research confirmed the reliability and validity of the JPI for measuring generalized risk acceptance (Jackson, 1977), which is related to innovativeness. Further research has also supported reliability (Letonja, 2016) and validity (Jackson, 1976) of the JPI scale.

For measuring innovativeness of successors in SFBs, we used 11 variables. The coefficient of reliability (Cronbach alpha) is 0.764, which means that the reliability of the construct in the field of innovativeness of successors is good (coefficient between 0.70 and 0.90) (Letonja, 2016).

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of variables of the construct on the field of innovativeness of successors

Variable	Statement – argument
V1	I often surprise with new ideas
V2	I am often being asked to help people in creative activities
V3	I am more satisfied if I develop a novel idea as if I master a skill
V4	I prefer work which requires original thinking
V5	Usually I do not continue with work as I was used to do
V6	I prefer the work which requires inventiveness as skills and practice
V7	I am a very creative person
V8	I like to experiment with different styles of doing the same things
V9	In the recent 5 years I developed / started to market 0, 1, 2, 3-5, more than 5 new lines of products and services
V10	In the recent 5 years I developed / started to market 0, 1, 2, 3-5, more than 5 new processes
V11	In the recent 5 years the changes in production/services/process lines ….

Measured on the Likert scale from 1 – I do not agree at all to 5 – I fully agree; exception V9 and V10, measured on the Likert scale from 1 – In the recent 5 years I developed 0 new lines of products and services/new processes to 5 – In the recent 5 years I developed more as 5 new lines of products and services/processes (Source: Letonja, 2016).

Social capital of the founder in SFB, which is positively associated with the innovativeness of successors in SFBs, is a variable that is very important for the smooth and effective implementation of succession, innovativeness and long-term sustainability of SFBs. In our research we studied the three dimesions of internal social capital of the SFB, defined by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), while in our paper we focus only on the two dimensions of social capital: structural and cognitive. The two dimensions were studied using the already proven measurement instrument from Leana and Pil (2006). We examined the structural dimension of internal social capital with four statements: "The founder leads fair communication with the successor and other family members"; "The founder has no secret agenda before the successor or other family members"; "The founder is happy to share information with his successor and other family members"; and: "The founder gives priority to family members in sharing information". The cognitive dimension of internal social capital in the SFB was verified by four adjusted statements for the SFB: "The founder, successor and other family members are committed to the goals of the company"; "The founder shares the common purpose with the successor and other family members"; "The founder takes the successor as a partner in the planning of the company's further journey"; "The founder and successor have a common vision of the future of the company".

Table 3: Coefficient of reliability of the construct on the field of social capital of the founder in SFB (three dimensions)

Cronbach alfa – social capital of the founder	
Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.903	12

(Source: Letonja, 2016)

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of variables of the construct on the field of factors of innovativeness of successors – social capital of founders in SFB

Variable	Statement/argument	N	Mean	Standard deviation
V12	The founder keeps fair communication with his successor(s) and other family members	204	4.46	.661
V13	The founder has no secret agenda before his successor or other family members	201	4.46	.728
V14	The founder is happy to share information with his successor and other family members	203	4.46	.615
V15	The founder gives priority to family members in the sharing of information	203	4.21	.926
V16	The founder, successor and other family members are committed to the SFB's goals	202	4.53	.608
V17	The founder shares a common purpose with his successor and other family members	204	4.47	.607
V18	The founder takes the successor as a partner in planning the SFB's future journey	203	4.47	.719
V19	The founder and successor have a common vision of the future of the SFB	203	4.29	.819

(Source: Letonja, 2016)

The mean values of the variables in the construct of the Social Capital of the founder range from 4.21 ("The founder gives priority to family members in the sharing of information", V15, the structural dimension of social capital) and 4.53 ("The founder, successor and other family members are committed to the SFB's goals"; V16, the cognitive dimension of social capital). The highest standard deviation of 0.926 is at the median value of the variable "The founder gives priority to family members in sharing information" (V15; the structural dimension of social capital), the lowest standard deviation value, 0.607, is for the variable " The founder shares a common purpose with his successor and other family members " (V17, the cognitive dimension of social capital). Standard deviations are in the range of 0.607 to 0.926, all are below 1.0 and are only in case of two statements higher than the average standard deviation in the construct in the field of factor "social capital of the founder."

3   Results

In our research, we studied the relationship between the social capital of founders and innovativeness of successors in SFBs. The correlations between the variables of both constructs are shown in Table 5. Our research revealed that between the two constructs, innovativeness of the successor in SFBs, measured by 11 variables and the two dimensions of social capital, measured by 8 variables, exist 10 positive correlations, ranging between weak to medium strength.

Correlation between the innovativeness of successors, measured by the "I often surprise with new ideas" (V1) and the structural dimension of social capital, "the founder is happy to share information with his successor and other family members" (V12) is positive and medium-strong; measured by "People ask me for help in creative activities" (V2) and the

Table 5: Correlations between social capital of the founder (V12 – V19) and innovativeness of successors (V1 – V11) in SFBs

Inovativeness of successor		V12	V13	V14	V15	V16	V17	V18	V19
I often surprise with new ideas	Pearson Correlation	.175	.052	.120	.100	.004	.143	.141	.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.082	.609	.235	.324	.969	.156	.164	.979
	N	99	100	100	100	99	100	99	99
I am often being asked to help people in creative activities	Pearson Correlation	.258*	.175	.081	.101	.169	.189	.137	.243*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.085	.429	.322	.097	.063	.180	.016
	N	97	98	98	98	98	98	97	97
I am more satisfied if I develop a novel idea as if I master a skill	Pearson Correlation	.213*	-.076	.238*	.023	.104	.020	.138	-.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.034	.453	.017	.822	.306	.842	.173	.932
	N	99	100	100	100	99	100	99	99
I prefer work which requires original thinking	Pearson Correlation	.174	.051	.087	-.013	.106	.034	.120	.304**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.085	.612	.390	.902	.297	.738	.237	.002
	N	99	100	100	100	99	100	99	99
Usually I do not continue with work as I was used to do	Pearson Correlation	-.087	-.060	-.094	-.052	.020	.044	-.045	.110
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.393	.555	.356	.608	.847	.669	.661	.282
	N	98	99	99	99	98	99	98	98
I prefer the work which requires inventiveness as skills and practice	Pearson Correlation	.023	-.155	.012	-.033	.008	-.096	-.085	-.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.821	.122	.908	.746	.939	.338	.403	.239
	N	100	101	101	101	100	101	100	100
I am a very creative person	Pearson Correlation	.215*	.070	.211*	.094	.031	.171	.088	.118
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.033	.487	.035	.354	.760	.089	.388	.245
	N	99	100	100	100	99	100	99	99
I like to experiment with different styles of doing the same things	Pearson Correlation	.189	-.083	.219*	.028	.184	.082	.070	.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.061	.412	.029	.785	.068	.417	.490	.589
	N	99	100	100	100	99	100	100	99
In the recent 5 years I developed / started to market 0-5, more than 5 new lines of products and services	Pearson Correlation	.272*	.150	.107	-.016	.175	.132	.257*	.136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.160	.316	.883	.102	.217	.016	.207
	N	88	89	89	89	88	89	88	88
In the recent 5 years I developed / started to market 0, 1, 2, 3-5, more than 5 new processes	Pearson Correlation	.078	.132	-.022	-.024	.036	.113	.150	.156
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.482	.231	.841	.829	.743	.306	.175	.159
	N	83	84	84	84	83	84	83	83
In the recent 5 years the changes in production/services /process lines …	Pearson Correlation	.207	.110	.114	.072	.198	.178	.184	.217*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.055	.309	.292	.510	.068	.100	.091	.045
	N	87	87	87	87	86	87	86	86

(Source: Letonja, 2016)

cognitive dimension of social capital, measured by "the founder and successor have a joint vision of the company about the future "(V19) there are positive, weak correlations; measured by "I am more satisfied if I develop a new idea as I master the skill" (V3) and the structural dimension of social capital measured by "the founder is happy to share information with the successor and other family members" (V14) is positive weak correlation; measured by "I prefer work that requires original thinking" (V4) is positively, weakly connected with the structural dimension of social capital "founder is happy to share information with successor and other family members" (V14) and positive, strongly linked with cognitive dimension of social capital "founder and successor have a joint vision of the company on the future" (V19); measured by "I am a very creative person" (V7) and the structural dimension of social capital, measured by "founder is with pleasure sharing information with successor and other family members" (V14) there is positive, weak correlation; measured by "I'm experimenting with different ways of doing things" (V8) and the structural dimension of social capital, measured by "the founder is happy to share information with the successor and other family members" (V14) is weak; measured by "Over the past five years, I developed / started marketing 0, 1, 2, 3-5, more than 5 new lines of products and services" (V9) and the structural dimension of social capital, measured by "the founder leads fair communication with the successor and other family members "(V12)," the founder is happy to share information with his successor and other family members "(V14); and the cognitive dimension of social capital "the founder takes the successor as a partner in the planning of the company's further path" (V18) are positive weak correlations; measured by "In the last five years I have developed / started marketing 0, 1, 2, 3-5, more than 5 new processes" (V10) are weak correlations with the cognitive dimension of social capital "the founder and successor have a common vision of the future of the company" (V19).

4   Discussion

The study confirmed there are many positive correlations between two different dimensions of internal social capital (structural and cognitive) of the founders of SFBs and innovativeness of successors in SFBs.

Based on the analysis with correlation we can say the transfer of social capital of founders *partly positively correlates with innovativeness* of successors in SFBs. Among the variables of innovativeness of successors (V1 – V11) and the variables of transferring social capital of the founders in SFBs exist 10 positive correlations. Strength of these correlations, ranges between weak to medium. Based on this finding we can partly confirm the hypothesis H0: *"Social capital of the founder in a family SME affects innovativeness of successors in SFBs.",* as well as H1: *"Structural dimension of social capital of the founder in an SFB affects innovativeness of successors in SFB."* and H2: *"Cognitive dimension of social capital of the founder in an SFB affects innovativeness of successors in SFB."*

Medium strong correlations have been confirmed for the innovativeness of successors and the structural dimension of social capital - the founder is happy to share information with his successor and other family members; they were also confirmed for the cognitive dimension of social capital, that the founder and successor have a common vision of the future of the company. Both of those social capital dimensions emphasize the founder's openness to information communication with the successor, and his willingness and awareness that the long-term survival of SFB necessarily requires a coordinated, shared vision of the company with the successor. The finding concerning the structural dimension of social capital is consistent with the findings of research in the past (Ganzaroli, Fiscato, and Pilotti, 2006) that there are patterns of connections based on fair communication and information shared by members of the family in SFBs. This promotes mobility and knowledge sharing between family members and other employees, and fosters innovativeness. In contrast, Laforet (2012) finds that when relationships between family members are weak, this leads to generating better and lasting innovations, while the result of strong connections between family members is the inability to face technology discontinuities or to profit from new opportunities. The finding in connection with the cognitive dimension of social capital is in line with Lansberg's (1999) conclusions that a shared vision enables the SFB to develop a strong and long-term level of social understanding and produces a level of internal social capital that can be used to create an economic and non-economic value in company. Family members in SFB often have a deep-seated, collective understanding of the family culture of their SFB, which contributes to the creation of a shared vision of the future and purpose of the company.

The results of this research are in line with wider known practise on the field of SFBs. The importance of FBs is significant and research interest for family entrepreneurship is growing, although focused on the field of succession, and very limited on the field of innovativeness of SFBs (Letonja, 2016). But, the question of SFB capability for innovating remains relatively unexplored (Laforet, 2102; Laforet, 2013). According to written above we can claim structural dimensions of social capital of the founders are capital of the company as any other. The lack of that specific capital results in less innovativeness in the company's business model thus in the company's performance, since studies suggest, innovativeness is related with it (e.g. Craig, Dibrell, and Garrett, 2013). Further, since countries with a continious family businesses' tradition are more successfull in relation to sustainable economic growth and on the other side social care, social capital of the founders remains an important element of constitution of an economy as a broader field.

5   Conclusion

The findings of our research have theoretical and practical implications. The scientific contribution of our paper is a filled literature gap in the field of social capital of the founders in SFBs and innovativeness of successors.

From a theoretical perspective, our study contributes to definition of factors, which are affecting innovativeness of successors in SFBs. We focused on social capital of the founders and proved which dimensions of internal social capital (structural, cognitive) of the founders in SFBs are positively related to innovativeness of successors.

Our research question was: *»Is the transfer of the social capital of the founder into SFB positively related to the innovativeness of the next generation in SFB?"* Our study confirmed that there are many positive correlations between social capital of the founders and innovativeness of successors in the SFBs. The findings of our research indicate that social capital of founders is important factor for fostering innovativeness of successors.

Our research contributes to a better understanding of the segment of FBs from the aspect of the problem of succession and innovation management in the SFB in the transition economy, e.g. Slovenia. The findings of the research are useful for family entrepreneurs of different generations - for founders and for their successors and experts who will, for example, be employed in SFBs. There are several important results of our research that provide basis for formulating recommendations to the founders of SFB and their successors and professionals on how to develop innovations and innovativeness in SFB. The SFB needs to create an appropriate culture for innovation. The family culture of the founder/SFB and the social capital of the founder can greatly contribute to this. Knowledge on innovation management, which contributes to the greater competitiveness of SFBs on a global scale and to successful succession of potential successors in SFBs in a dynamic, changing business environment, is also of key importance.

An important limitation of the research was that there are few theoretical sources with combinations of the areas studied (innovativeness of successors, social capital), viewed on a global scale. Many researchers are studying individual aspects of transferring succession in SFBs to the next generation, and none of the factors related to the SFB's innovativeness. The results of the research can not be generalized to any population of companies, as they are limited to SFBs. The definition of an SFB as micro, small and medium-sized companies with 0 to 249 employees takes into account only two of the three statutory criteria for size grading of companies. The sample is limited to Slovenia. The research can be transferred to other transition countries, for example, Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, Montenegro, Albania, Bulgaria for the purpose of comparison and assessment.

The study was conducted on a sample of 103 SFBs. Among these SFBs there were 21 SFBs of the second generation and 82 SFBs of the first generation. The sensitivity of carrying out a survey on a sample should be considered, where the representation of SFBs of the first and the second generation of SFBs would be more equal. The research is quantitative, and it makes sense to upgrade it by qualitative research with in-depth interviews with, for example, 30 SFBs who participated in a quantitative survey from different sectors of activity at different stages of transferring the company to

successors. In doing so, we would examine individual constructs in the field of factors such as, for example, transfer of social capital, management style of the founder, etc. The research results were processed with IBM SPSS 22; we studied positive correlation, not causality between variables. The challenge for further research is the use of the SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) method and consequently further statistical data processing in the databases of the founders and successors of SFBs in Slovenia.

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2 Delovanje sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti

Branko Škafar[*]

Povzetek: *Vsaka organizacija si želi biti uspešna in učinkovita. To pomeni delati prave stvari na pravi način. Sliši se preprosto, ampak preproste stvari so v svoji vsebini precej zahtevne. Na poti do učinkovite in uspešne organizacije so jim v pomoč znana standardizirana in nestandardizirana orodja za doseganje kakovosti in odličnosti. V tem prispevku bomo predstavili pomen in skupne značilnosti nekaterih sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti ter na osnovi raziskav podali ugotovitve zakaj le ti v praksi delujejo oz. ne delujejo. Primerjali bomo sistem vodenja kakovosti ISO 9001, sistem vodenja kakovosti v višjih strokovnih šolah in modela odličnosti PRSPO in EFQM.*

Skozi več kot 20 letno delovanje avtorja tega članka na področju sistemov kakovosti in modelov odličnosti je bilo opravljenih tudi več raziskav o uporabi teh orodij. V članku so predstavljene rezultati raziskav zakaj v praksi orodja za zagotavljanje kakovosti in odličnosti delujejo in zakaj ne. Slabosti predstavljajo priložnost organizacijam, da se izboljšajo in so hitrejša na poti do učinkovitega in uspešnega poslovanja.

Ključne besede: sistemi vodenja kakovosti, modeli odličnosti

Quality Management Systems and Models of Excellence

Abstract: *The aim of each organization is to be successful and effective, which means doing the right things in the right way. Sounds simple; however, the simplest things are in their content quite demanding. On their path to effectiveness and successfulness, organizations are helped by known standardized and non-standardized tools for achieving such goals. This scientific monograph will introduce the meaning and common characteristics of some of the quality management systems and models of excellence, and based on the findings of the research, explain in practice why these are or are not effective. We will compare the system of quality management system of quality management ISO 9001, model of business excellence in public utility company, model of excellence in higher vocational colleges and PRSPO and EFQM models of excellence.*

Through more than 20 years of the author's work on quality systems and models of excellence, more research was carried out on the use of these tools. This scientific monograph introduces the results of these researches and the reasons why in practice the tools for quality assurance and excellence are effective and also not. The ending offers proposals on how to improve usefulness of quality and excellence management systems.

Keywords: quality management systems, models of excellence

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1 Uvod

Namen prispevka je proučiti sisteme vodenja kakovosti in modele odličnosti in to z raziskavo v konkretnih organizacijah v praksi. Cilj prispevka je na osnovi teoretičnih izhodišč in raziskave med različnimi organizacijami podati ugotovitve o delovanju sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti v praksi ter predloge za izboljšanje delovanja. Metode dela so proučevanje literature, primerjalna metoda, metoda povzemanja in metoda anketiranja (naključno vzorčenje).

1.1 Sistemi vodenja kakovosti

Poznamo veliko orodij za kakovost in modelov odličnosti. Med najbolj znano orodje kakovosti sodi sistem vodenja kakovosti ISO 9001, ki ga uporablja veliko organizacij. Velikokrat zaradi zahtev. Ker je sitem standardiziran, si morajo zato organizacije pri pooblaščeni instituciji pridobiti certifikat ISO 9001, ki je mednarodno priznan. Kar se tiče modelov odličnosti pa je v Evropi najbolj poznan model EFQM (European Foundation for Quality Management). Žal se v Sloveniji vse premalo organizacije poslužujejo tega odličnega modela odličnosti za samooceno svoje organizacije. Samoocena pokaže, kjer je organizacija dobra in kje so priložnosti za izboljšanje.

V tem prispevku bomo omejeni s primerjavo le nekaterih sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti. Primerjali bomo Sistem vodenja kakovosti ISO 9001 (mednarodni standard), sistem vodenja kakovosti v višjih strokovnih šolah in modela odličnosti PRSPO (Priznanje Republike Slovenije za poslovno odličnost) in EFQM.

1.2 Sistem vodenja kakovosti ISO 9001

Ta mednarodni standard specificira zahteve za sistem vodenja kakovosti. Uporablja se, kadar organizacija (Koubek, 2015):
- mora dokazati svojo sposobnost, da dosledno dobavlja proizvode, ki izpolnjujejo zahteve odjemalcev in zahteve ustrezne zakonodaje in regulative, in
- namerava izboljšati zadovoljstvo odjemalcev z učinkovito uporabo sistema, vključno s procesi za nenehno izboljševanje sistema in zagotavljanje skladnosti z zahtevami odjemalcev in ustreznimi zahtevami zakonodaje in regulative.

Ta mednarodni standard spodbuja privzem procesnega pristopa pri razvijanju, izvajanju in izboljševanju uspešnosti sistema vodenja kakovosti z namenom, da bi se z izpolnjevanjem zahtev odjemalcev povečalo njihovo zadovoljstvo. Da bi organizacija delovala uspešno, mora opredeliti in voditi številne povezane aktivnosti. Aktivnost ali skupek aktivnosti, ki uporabljajo vire in ki se vodijo z namenom. da omogočijo spremembo vhodov v izhode, se lahko obravnava kot proces. Izhod enega procesa pogosto tvori vhod v drugi proces.

Uporabo sistema procesov znotraj organizacije, vključno z njihovo identifikacijo, medsebojnimi vplivi in njihovim vodenjem z namenom ustvariti želeni rezultat, lahko poimenujemo 'procesni pristop'. Prednost procesnega pristopa je v tem, da omogoča nenehni nadzor nad povezavami med posameznimi procesi znotraj sistema procesov

kot tudi nad njihovimi kombinacijami in medsebojnimi vplivi. Pri uporabi znotraj sistema vodenja kakovosti tak pristop poudari pomen:
- razumevanja in izpolnjevanja zahtev,
- potrebe po obravnavanju procesov z vidika dodane vrednosti,
- pridobivanja rezultatov delovanja in uspešnosti procesov,
- nenehnega izboljševanja procesov na osnovi objektivnih merjenj.

Pri vseh procesih se lahko uporabi metodologija, poznana kot "načrtuj, izvedi, preveri, ukrepaj (PDCA)". Na kratko to lahko opišemo kot:
- načrtuj: vzpostavi cilje in procese potrebne za delo doseganje rezultatov, v skladu z zahtevami odjemalcev in načeli organizacije;
- izvedi: izvajaj process;
- preveri: nadzoruj in meri procese in proizvod glede načel, ciljev in zahtev za proizvod ter poročaj o rezultatih;
- ukrepaj: ukrepaj tako, da se delovanje procesa nenehno izboljšuje.

V letu 2015 je izšla že peta izdaja standarda ISO 9001, ki dokazuje, da je standard zbir najboljših svetovnih praks, saj se s časom ter razvojem le-teh nenehno dopolnjuje. Ob ostalem je poudarek tudi na obvladovanju tveganj (Koubek, 2015).

ISO 9001:2015 uvaja sledeče ključne novosti v primerjavi z ISO 9001:2008, ki so nastale zaradi vse bolj zahtevnih kupcev in uporabnikov, pojavov novih tehnologij, povečanja kompleksnosti dobavnih verig in zaradi povečanja zavedanja o potrebi po upoštevanju iniciativ trajnostnega razvoja (EFQM: EFQM Excellence model, ISO standards - The new ISO standards on management systems and the EFQM excellence model, 2017 v Urad RS za meroslovje, 2018).

1.3 Sistem vodenja kakovosti za višje strokovne šole

Sistem vodenja kakovosti v višjih strokovnih šolah je nastajal v okviru projekta Impletum med leti 2008 in 2011. Sistem vodenja kakovosti za Višje strokovne šole je bil implementiran v več kot 30 šol od skupaj nekaj nad 50 šol. Sistem se je prijel in doživel s strani strokovnjakov Nacionalne agencije za kakovost v visokem šolstvu, pri zunanjih presojah šol, pozitivno mnenje.

"Sistem vodenja kakovosti za višje strokovne šole: Zahteve" je dokument, ki je bil pripravljen za potrebe projekta Impletum in je objavljen na spletni strani IRC, Impletum, aktivnost 9 (Žagar, Škafar in Zavrl, 2011). Izhaja iz podobnega dokumenta Kakovost za prihodnost vzgoje in izobraževanja, SIQ, 2006 in upošteva ISO 9001 in model poslovne odličnosti (EFQM). Predstavlja sistematičen in celovit pristop k vodenju kakovosti v višjih strokovnih šolah na podlagi izkušenj na področju sistemov vodenja kakovosti.

V letu 2017 je bil posodobljen in že upošteva zahteve ISO 9001:2015 (Skupnost VSŠ, 2017). Zahteve, ki jih podaja ta dokument, predstavljajo minimalne zahteve, ki jih izpolnjuje višja strokovna šola (v nadaljevanju šola) za dokazovanje svoje kakovosti. Zahteve temeljijo na sodobnih standardih in modelih vodenja kakovosti, ki so uveljavljeni in priznani v mednarodnem merilu, kot so mednarodni standardi skupine ISO 9000 za

sisteme vodenja kakovosti ter evropski model poslovne odličnosti EFQM. Pri tem je med osnovnimi zahtevami poudarjena zahteva po izpolnjevanju obstoječe zakonodaje in uveljavljenih smernic s področja višješolskega izobraževanja.

Zahteve, ki jih podaja ta dokument, spodbujajo šole k sistematičnemu pristopu razvijanja takšnih aktivnosti in procesov, ki vodijo v povečevanje zadovoljstva vseh udeležencev v procesih izobraževanja. Pri tem se še posebej poudarja pomen (Skupnost VSŠ, 2017):
- razumevanja in izpolnjevanja zahtev in pričakovanj udeležencev v procesih izobraževanja;
- pridobivanja in vrednotenja rezultatov delovanja in uspešnosti šole;
- nenehnega izboljševanja, ki izhaja iz objektivnih merjenj in spremljanja delovanja šole.

Pristop ima vgrajeno metodologijo, poznano kot PDCA: »načrtuj (*plan*) – izvedi (*do*) – preveri (*check*) – ukrepaj (*act*)«. Metodologijo lahko opišemo kot:
- načrtuj: vzpostavi cilje in procese (aktivnosti) potrebne za realizacijo ciljev;
- izvedi: izvajaj procese (aktivnosti);
- preveri: nadzoruj in spremljaj procese (aktivnosti) in rezultate glede doseganja ciljev in o njih poročaj;
- ukrepaj: ukrepaj tako, da dosegaš (presegaš) cilje in izboljšuješ procese (aktivnosti).

Takšen pristop omogoča šoli tudi integracijo z drugimi sistemi ali modeli v enovit sistem vodenja šole.

1.4 Modela odličnosti EFQM in priznanje Republike Slovenije za poslovno odličnost

Model odličnosti EFQM (model poslovne odličnosti, oz. Priznanje RS za poslovno odličnost - novi model EFQM 2013) je splošen in neobvezujoč okvir, ki temelji na devetih merilih in dvaintridesetih podmerilih (EFQM, 2012). Pet od teh meril predstavlja "dejavnike", štiri merila pa "rezultate". Dejavniki nam povedo, kaj organizacija dela, rezultati pa povedo kaj organizacija dosega. Rezultati so posledica dejavnikov, ki jih izboljšujemo s pomočjo povratnih informacij s strani rezultatov.

Organizacija, ki želi biti uspešna, mora ne glede na panogo, velikost, strukturo ali zrelost vzpostaviti ustrezen sistem managementa. Model odličnosti EFQM 2013 (EFQM, 2012) je praktično, neobvezujoče orodje, ki organizacijam omogoča:
- oceniti, kje na poti k odličnosti so; pomaga jim razu-meti njihove ključne prednosti ter morebitno oddaljenost od njihove izjave o viziji in poslanstvu;
- skupni jezik in način razmišljanja o sebi, kar omogoča uspešno komuniciranje v organizaciji in zunaj nje;
- povezavo med obstoječimi in načrtovanimi pobudami, preprečuje podvajanje in zagotavlja prepoznavo morebitnih neskladnosti;
- vzpostavitev osnovne zgradbe sistema managementa organizacije.

Ob številnih orodjih in tehnikah upravljanja v splošni rabi model odličnosti EFQM omogoča celovit pogled na organizacijo in ga je mogoče uporabljati za ugotavljanje,

kako se te metode medsebojno ujemajo in dopolnjujejo. Zato ga je mogoče uporabljati v povezavi s katerim koli od številnih vrst orodij, odvisno od potreb in dejavnosti organizacije, kot splošno ogrodje za razvijanje trajnostne odličnosti. Odlične organizacije dosegajo in trajno ohranjajo višje ravni poslovanja, ki uresničujejo ali presegajo pričakovanja vseh njihovih deležnikov. EFQM je nastala za priznavanje in uveljavljanje trajnega uspeha ter za posredovanje napotkov tistim, ki ga želijo doseči. To uresničuje s tremi medsebojno močno prepletenimi komponentami:

- temeljnimi načeli odličnosti: osnovnimi načeli, ki so bistveni temelj doseganja trajnostne odličnosti vsake organizacije;
- modelom odličnosti EFQM: okvirom, ki organizacijam pomaga prenesti temeljna načela in točkovno logiko RADAR v prakso;
- logiko RADAR: dinamičnim ocenjevalnim okvirom in močnim managerskim orodjem, ki daje oporo organizaciji pri premagovanju izzivov, s katerimi se sooča, če želi uresničiti svoje težnje po doseganju trajne odličnosti.

Uporaba teh treh povezanih komponent je pomagala organizacijam vseh velikosti in panog, da se lahko primerjajo z značilnostmi, odlikami in dosežki trajno odličnih organizacij. Lahko jih uporabijo za razvijanje kulture odličnosti, večanje konsistentnosti svojega sloga managementa, dostopanje do dobrih praks, spodbujanje inovacij in izboljševanje svojih rezultatov.

Če se model odličnosti EFQM uporablja pravilno, v povezavi z logiko RADAR in temeljnimi načeli zagotavlja, da vse managerske prakse, ki jih organizacija uporablja, sestavljajo usklajen sistem, ki se nenehno izboljšuje in omogoča organizaciji izvajati njeno strategijo. Model EFQM in logika RADAR gradi na večletnih izkušnjah ter upošteva obstoječe in prihodnje izzive organizacije. Temeljna načela odličnosti so bistvena za vsako organizacijo, ki želi doseči trajno odličnost. Lahko se uporabijo tudi kot podlaga za opis značilnosti odlične organizacijske kulture. Prav tako pa so lahko skupni jezik za najvišje vodstvo. Podjetje, ki uporablja EFQM model poslovne odličnosti, izvaja procese neprestanih izboljšav po devetih merilih, ki naj bi zajemali vsa ključna področja delovanja podjetja. EFQM model poslovne odličnosti opredeljuje devet področij z naslednjimi uvodnimi definicijami:
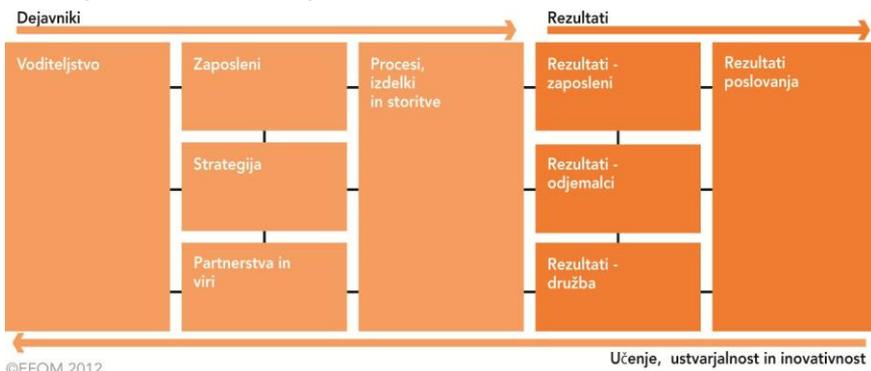
Slika 1: EFQM model poslovne odličnosti.
Vir: EFQM, 2012, povzeto po Urad RS za meroslovje, 2018.

1.5 Pregled meril modela odličnosti EFQM 2013

Model odličnosti EFQM obsega pet meril - pet dejavnikov, ki se nahajajo na levi strani sheme modela. Dejavniki obsegajo aktivnosti, ki jih organizacija mora storiti, da bi razvijala in udejanila svojo strategijo (EFWM, 2012).

– Voditeljstvo: odlične organizacije imajo takšne voditelje, ki oblikujejo in udejanijo načrtovano prihodnost, delujejo kot zgled vrednot in etike ter ves čas zbujajo zaupanje. So prožni in organizaciji omogočajo, da predvidi dogodke in se nanje pravočasno odzove, s čimer zagotavljajo njen stalni uspeh.

– Strategija: odlične organizacije uresničujejo svoje poslanstvo in vizijo z razvijanjem na deležnike osredotočene strategije. Za izvajanje le-te pospešujejo, udejanjajo in širijo ustrezne politike, načrte, cilje in procese.

– Zaposleni: odlične organizacije cenijo svoje zaposlene in ustvarjajo takšno organizacijsko kulturo, ki omogoča vzajemno koristno doseganje ciljev organizacije in osebnih ciljev zaposlenih. Razvijajo sposobnosti svojih zaposlenih, ter zagovarjajo poštenost in enakopravnost. Za svoje zaposlene skrbijo, z njimi komunicirajo, jih nagrajujejo in priznavajo, tako da jih spodbujajo, krepijo njihovo samozavest ter jim omogočajo uporabljati lastne veščine in znanje v korist organizacije.

– Partnerstva in viri. odlične organizacije načrtujejo in obvladujejo zunanja partnerstva, dobavitelje in notranje vire v podporo strategiji in politiki ter za uspešno izvajanje procesov. Zagotavljajo uspešno obvladovanje svojega vpliva na okolje in družbo.

– Procesi, proizvodi in storitve: odlične organizacije snujejo, upravljajo in izboljšujejo procese, proizvode in storitve, da bi povečale vrednost za odjemalce in druge deležnike.

Model odličnosti EFQM obsega štiri področja rezultatov, ki se nahajajo na desni strani modela. To so rezultati, ki jih organizacija dosega skladno z zastavljenimi strateškimi cilji. Na vseh štirih področjih organizacije:

– razvijejo množico meril dojemanja in povezanih kazalnikov delovanj, da bi ugotovile uspešnost udejanjanja in razširjanja svoje strategije in podpornih politik na podlagi potreb in pričakovanj relevantnih skupin deležnikov;

– postavljajo jasne cilje za ključne rezultate odjemalcev na podlagi potreb in pričakovanj poslovnih deležnikov ter v skladu s svojo izbrano strategijo;

– razčlenjujejo rezultate, da bi razumele izkušnje, potrebe in pričakovanja posebnih skupin deležnikov;

– vsaj tri leta izkazujejo pozitivne ali trajno dobre rezultate, povezane z odjemalci;

– jasno razumejo osnovne razloge in gonila za opažena gibanja ter vpliv, ki ga bodo ti rezultati imeli na druge kazalnike delovanja, dojemanje in z njimi povezane končne rezultate;

– zaupajo v svojo prihodnjo uspešnost in rezultate na podlagi lastnega razumevanja vzročno-posledične povezave;

– razumejo, kako so ključni rezultati, ki jih dosegajo, primerljivi s podobnimi organizacijami in če je primerno, te podatke uporabijo za postavljanje ciljev.

Štiri področja rezultatov (EFQM, 2012):

– rezultati v zvezi z odjemalci; odlične organizacije dosegajo in trajno ohranjajo izjemne rezultate, ki zadovoljujejo ali presegajo potrebe in pričakovanja njihovih odjemalcev.

– Rezultati v zvezi z zaposlenimi; odlične organizacije dosegaj in trajno ohranjajo izjemne rezultate, ki zadovoljujejo ali presegajo potrebe in pričakovanja njihovih zaposlenih.

– Rezultati v zvezi z družbo; odlične organizacije dosegajo in trajno ohranjajo izjemne rezultate, ki zadovoljujejo ali presegajo potrebe in pričakovanja ustreznih deležnikov v družbi.

– Rezultati poslovanja; odlične organizacije dosegajo in trajno ohranjajo izjemne rezultate, ki zadovoljujejo ali presegajo potrebe in pričakovanja njihovih poslovnih deležnikov.

Z evropskim EFQM modelom poslovne odličnosti se analizirana in spodbuja k izboljšavam na vseh področjih delovanja organizacije, upoštevaje cilje (rezultate) in vire (dejavnike). Pri doseganju trajne odličnosti gre za sistematično vzročno-posledično povezavo med pristopi, ki jih organizacija uporablja, da bi dosegla zastavljene cilje, ter dejansko doseženimi rezultati. Evropski EFQM model odličnosti za razliko od ostalih pristopov omogoča predvsem vzpostavitev celovitega sistema merjenja in stalnega izboljševanja vseh ključnih področij in segmentov delovanja organizacije. Model odličnosti EFQM je praktično orodje, ki organizacijam pomaga tak sistem vzpostaviti z merjenjem, kako daleč so prišle na poti k odličnosti; pomaga jim razumeti, kje so vrzeli, in jim nakaže rešitve. EFQM svoj model stalno preverja in ga posodablja z zgledovanjem po dobri praksi tisočih organizacij v Evropi in zunaj nje. Na ta način mu zagotavlja dinamičnost in skladnost s sodobnimi pogledi na upravljanje. EFQM, ki je preizkušeno praktično orodje, ki ga organizacije uporabljajo na številne načine (EFQM, 2012):

– kot orodje za samoocenjevanje, ko z merjenjem ugotavljajo, kako daleč so prišle na poti k odličnosti; pomaga jim razumeti kje so vrzeli in jim nakaže rešitve,

– kot način primerjave (benchmarking) z drugimi organizacijami, podjetji,

– kot vodilo za identificiranje področij za izboljšave,

– kot okvir za razmeščanje pobud, preprečevanje podvajanja in prepoznavanja vrzeli,

– kot podlago za skupni jezik in način razmišljanja o organizaciji, ki si ga delijo na vseh delovnih mestih v organizaciji in kot strukturo za sistem upravljanja organizacije.

2 Raziskave o delovanju sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti

O delovanju sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti, ki so navedeni v tem prispevku je bilo opravljenih več raziskav. Te so potekale tako s pomočjo anketiranja kot intervjujev, razgovorov in kot izmenjava mnenj na notranjih in zunanjih presojah sistema vodenja kakovosti v različnih organizacijah.

V nadaljevanju predstavljamo dve raziskavi in sicer za model odličnosti v komunalnih podjetjih in sistem vodenja kakovosti v višjih strokovnih šolah. Obe raziskavi potrjujeta koristnost sistema vodenja kakovosti in njegovega pomena za organizacije (Škafar, 2006).

Kvantitativna analiza modela med slovenskimi komunalnimi podjetji ter med podjetji Saubermacher v Sloveniji ter matičnega podjetja v Avstriji. Kvantitativna analiza modela je bila izvedena tako, da je bil izdelan vprašalnik, katerega vprašanja so bila vezana na uporabo elementov modela v anketiranih organizacijah. Anketa je bila izvedena med 28 podjetji, ki se ukvarjajo z odpadki. Od tega jih je bilo 14 javnih komunalnih podjetij, 9 v privatni lasti (v glavnem se ukvarjajo s odstranjevanjem posebnih in nevarnih odpadkov) in 4 podjetja, ki so v delni lasti podjetja Saubermacher iz Avstrije ter matičnega podjetja iz Avstrije. Anketirana javna podjetja pokrivajo s svojo dejavnostjo skoraj tri četrtine slovenske površine. Podjetja v privatni lastnini pa so organizacije, ki se ukvarjajo predvsem z nevarnimi in posebnimi odpadki. Za obširnejšo analizo modela (slovenska javna podjetja in model, privatna podjetja in model, podjetja v lasti Saubermacherja in model ter v podjetju Saubermacher iz Avstrije in model) smo se odločili za dodatno, še podrobnejšo analizo in dokazovanje o uspešnosti modela. Anketni vprašalnik je vseboval 47 vprašanj. Rezultati so potrdili pomembnost posameznih elementov modela za doseganje poslovne uspešnosti in odličnosti (Škafar, 2006).

2.1 Raziskava o sistemu vodenja kakovosti v višjih strokovnih šolah

Z raziskavo smo želeli ugotoviti, ali so v višjih strokovnih šolah, ki so izpolnile ankete in jih vrnile, Zahteve sistema vodenja kakovosti, ki jih uporabljajo pri ugotavljanju in zagotavljanju kakovosti na svoji višji strokovni šoli, pripomogle k izboljšanju kakovosti in s tem izpolnjevanju pričakovanj posameznih deležnikov šole.

Anketo je izpolnilo 30 višjih strokovnih šol, oziroma predsedniki komisij za kakovost ali ravnatelji (od 59 delujočih). Vprašalnik je bil sestavljen iz 11 vprašanj ter je bil anonimen.

Vprašanja in ocene (ocene so bile možne od 1 do 4, kjer ocena 1 pomeni – sploh se ne strinjam, ocena 2 - se ne strinjam, ocena 3 - se strinjam in ocena 4 – se zelo strinjam) po posameznih vprašanjih so sledeče:

Tabela 1: Povprečne stopnje strinjanja

Dimenzija	Vrednost
Boljša je informiranost	3,3
Boljše je komuniciranje med zaposlenimi in med vodstvom in zaposlenimi	2,9
Bolj sistematično so urejeni letni razgovori	3,0
Bolj sistematično je urejeno izobraževanje in usposabljanje	3,1
Zbiranje predlogov za izboljšave se je izboljšalo	3,1
Boljša je pripadnost šole	3,0
Boljše se izvajajo procesi (izobraževalni, delo referata, knjižnice…)	2,8
Večje je zadovoljstvo študentov	3,0
Večje je zadovoljstvo zaposlenih	2,8
Večje je zadovoljstvo delodajalcev	2,8
Stalne izboljšave so na naši VSŠ bolj prisotne	3,4

Povprečna ocena vprašanj je v razponu od 2,8 do 3,4. Na osnovi ocen lahko povzamemo, da anketiranci strinjajo, da je sistem vodenja kakovosti po Zahtevah sistema vodenja kakovosti pripomogel k boljšemu zadovoljstvu posameznih deležnikov šole, boljšemu izvajanju procesov in prisotnosti stalnim izboljšavam na šoli.

2.1.1. Sistem vodenja kakovosti ISO 9001

Sistem vodenja kakovosti ISO 9001 ima vpeljanih več sto organizacij v Sloveniji. Zaupanje v njega kaže zahteva na tujih trgih, da kdor ima ta mednarodni standard je zaupanja vreden partner.

2.1.2. Modela odličnosti EFQM in PRSPO

Model EFQM je v Evropi uveljavljen in vse več organizacij se poteguje za to priznanje. Nenazadnje organizacije s pomočjo tega modela ugotavljajo kje so na poti do odličnosti uspešna in kje so še priložnosti za izboljšanje. Priznanja EFQM se vsako leto podeljujejo v različnih evropskih mestih in model vse bolj pridobiva na teži.

Žal pa model odličnosti Priznanje Republike Slovenije za poslovno odličnost v Sloveniji ni tako uveljavljen. Letno se na razpis prijavi okrog le nekaj organizacij (včasih več včasih manj) čeprav je model v Sloveniji že 20 let. Priznanje se podeljuje vsako leto. Kje so vzroki za to, da se malo organizacij odloči za prijavo za Priznanje Republike Slovenije za poslovno odličnost je treba raziskati.

Vsekakor pa prejemniki priznanja tako v Sloveniji kot v Evropi dokazujejo svojo odličnost skozi zadovoljstvo deležnikov organizacije in poslovne rezultate.

3 Ugotovitve o (ne)delovanju sistemov vodenja in kakovosti in modelov odličnosti

Če smo v prejšnjem poglavju ugotovili, da so sistemi vodenja kakovosti in modeli odličnosti, ki jih v tej monografiji obravnavamo, koristni za organizacije, da so učinkovite in uspešne pa se vseeno ugotavlja, da vsem organizacijam ne prinašajo tega kar pričakujejo. Torej orodja kakovosti in modeli odličnosti organizacije v celoti ne uporabljajo kot bi jih lahko. Kje so vzroki?

V kolikor dobro proučimo predstavljene sisteme vodenja kakovosti in modele odličnosti v tej monografiji lahko ugotovimo skupne značilnosti le teh. Skupne značilnosti omenjenih sistemov vodenja kakovosti so:

- vsi imajo osnovo v tako imenovanem PDCA (planiraj - izvedi - izmeri - izboljšaj) krogu (spirali),
- vodenje (ustrezni vodja - inovativni, timski, vizionarski, povezovalni, motivator) je osnova za dosego usmeritev organizacije (vizija, poslanstvo strategija, plani, merljivi cilji),
- ljudje in viri (ustrezni kadri (kompetentni), infrastruktura in tehnologija) so ključ za doseganje ciljev organizacije,
- procesni pristop (procese (organizacija mora imeti definirane proces) je potrebno stalno (vsaj vsako leto (op. avtor članka)) izboljševati). S tem se dosega izboljševanje kakovosti, zniževanje stroškov in skrajševanje časa samega procesa,

- meritve (organizacije morajo meriti ali so dosegle zastavljene merljive cilje),
- stalne izboljšave na vseh področjih (organizacije morajo za svoj obstoj izboljševati procese in poslovanje, saj se vse spreminja (izdelki, storitve, konkurenca, kupci, dobavitelji…)). Zato so nujen sistematičen pristop do izboljšav, inovacij (od zbiranja idej do uresničitve).

Skupna značilnost modelov odličnosti so (velja tudi vse kar je navedeno pri sistemih vodenja kakovosti):

- odličnost je nadpovprečnost (glede npr. na konkurenco in druge organizacije)
- stalne izboljšave, nadpovprečni poslovni rezultati (izguba ne more biti)
- zadovoljstvo vseh deležnikov organizacije (kupci, lastniki, zaposleni, dobavitelji, ožja in širša družbena skupnost (poudarek torej tudi družbeni odgovornosti). Zadovoljstvo vseh deležnikov se (vsaj letno) meri in se mora izboljševati. Trendi z leti morajo biti seveda pozitivni. Prikazovanje naj bi bilo večletno (vsaj zadnjih 5 let) Pri tem je najpomembnejše zadovoljstvo kupcev in ključni rezultati delovanja).

Sam sem opravil 9 raziskav (ankete, razgovori rezultati presoj), v katere je bilo vključenih nekaj več kot 100 organizacij v zasebnem in javnem sektorju, ki imajo vzpostavljen sistem vodenja kakovosti, in ugotovil sledeče:

- problem vodenja (vodenje brez vizije, brez strategije, brez merljivih ciljev, vodja odloča vse sam…),
- problem poslovnih procesov (nedefinirani procesi, izboljšave redke),
- problem meritev (meritve v glavnem le iz poslovnega poročila - dobiček, prihodki, plače…),
- problem izboljšav (izboljšav je malo (5 do 20 na leto v organizacijah (analiza v več kot 100 organizacijah v velikosti do 100 zaposlenih), nesistematičen pristop izboljšav - naključno),
- preslabo poznavanje sistema vodenja kakovosti in modela odličnosti (običajno pozna skrbnik kakovosti in mogoče še direktor, ostali zaposleni premalo ali nič).

Seveda vse navedene ugotovitve ne veljajo za vse organizacije. V manj kot 20 % organizacij (19) pa problemov povezanih s sistemov vodenja kakovosti ali modelom odličnosti niso zaznali.

Iz predstavljene analize lahko povzamemo, da sistemi vodenja kakovosti in modeli odličnosti ne delujejo kot bi morali. Večina organizacij, ki imajo vzpostavljen sistem vodenja kakovosti in ali uporablja model odličnosti orodja ne izrablja kakor bi lahko zato lahko ima večje težave s poslovanjem kot organizacije, ki orodje pravilno uporabljajo.

4 Predlogi za boljše delovanje sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti v praksi

Kakor smo omenili se orodja za zagotavljanje kakovosti in modeli odličnosti še premalo v celoti uporabljajo, zato ne dosegajo želenih rezultatov. Vzroki so omenjeni v prejšnjem poglavju.

Predlogi, da bi se orodja za zagotavljanje kakovosti in modeli odličnosti učinkoviteje in uspešneje uporabljali pa so:

– boljše vodenje (vodenje z viziji in merljivimi cilji, vodja inovator, vodja ve fascinirati, je motivator, ima pravilen pristop do ravnanja z ljudmi…),
– optimizacija poslovnih procesov (določiti poslovne proces in skrbnike procesov, izboljševanje procesov vsako leto s timskim pristopom…),
– **o**pravljanje meritev (razen poslovnih rezultatov še zadovoljstvo deležnikov organizacije, inovativnosti, bolniške, napak. Boljše morajo biti notranje presoje - predlogi izboljšav, primeri dobrih praks),
– ustvarjalnost in inovativnost (sistematičen pristop od zbiranja idej do invencijsko - inovacijske dejavnosti),
– učeča se organizacija (vsi zaposleni se morajo v organizaciji učiti, to učenje mora biti sistematično in dolgoročno),
– družbena odgovornost (razen pomena dobičku in prihodkom biti tudi družbeno odgovorni),
– seznanitev vseh zaposlenih s sistemom vodenja kakovosti in modelom odličnosti (če se uporablja),
– etično poslovanje (dolgoročna uspešnost se zagotavlja le z etičnim poslovanjem)**,**
– pomen upoštevanja stalnih sprememb (katerim se je treba prilagajati ali jih ustvarjati).

Navedeni predlogi za izboljšanje uporabe orodij za zagotavljanje kakovosti in modelov odličnosti veljajo za vse organizacije, ki omenjena orodja že uporabljajo in tudi za tiste, ki bodo na to pot stopile. Vsekakor pa so orodja odlična pomoč za učinkovitejše in uspešnejše delovanje organizacij, le uporabljati jih moramo znati.

5   Zaključek

Biti uspešna organizacija je cilj vsake organizacije. Seveda lahko uspešnost podjetja presojamo z več vidikov. Razen finančnih kazalnikov, npr. dobička so za organizacije vedno bolj v ospredju tudi nefinančni kazalniki, kot so voditeljstvo, inovativnost, zadovoljstvo kupcev, zaposlenih, dobaviteljev in širše družbe (kraj, občina, država), kakovost življenja in dela, učinkovito izvajanje in krajšanje procesa dela, ki skupaj dolgoročno prispevajo k boljšemu poslovanju in kakovosti izdelkov ter storitev. Orodij, modelov in metod, ki zagotavljajo učinkovito presojanje uspešnosti, je veliko,

V tem članku smo predstavili primerjavo nekaj znanih in manj znanih sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti in na osnovi raziskav predstavili zakaj le ti ne delujejo v organizacijah kot bi morali.

Omejitve v raziskavi predstavlja to, da smo izbrali naključno izbrane organizacije iz Slovenije in tujine, večino višjih strokovnih šol ter da nismo primerjali vseh znanih sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti.

Predlogi, ki so podani vsekakor lahko organizacijam, ki imajo omenjena orodja v uporabi, pomagajo, da bodo orodja boljše uporabili in s tem omogočili boljše poslovanje

organizacije. Vsekakor pa lahko predloge upoštevajo tudi organizacije, ki bodo navedena orodja šele uporabljala.

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3 Testing the Model of Time Management in Montenegro

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Abstract: *In the study presented, concepts of time, working and spare time are introduced, establishing what they have in common and what ties them together with respect to work and private life. The main objective of the empirical part was to define how individuals from different groups in Montenegro manage their work/spare time, therefore including elements of working and spare time. The research is based on the analysis of the following arguments: perception of an individual of his utilization of the time available, propensity to perform urgent tasks, time wasters. The study focused mainly on: How respondents exploit time, available for carrying out the tasks at work, how is this being reflected in their private life, what influences the propensity of respondents to carry out urgent tasks, and which factor is in their opinion the most responsible for negative influence on their performance at work.*

Keywords*: time management, working time, spare time, time wasters, research, model of time management*

Testiranje modela upravljanja vremenom u Crnoj Gori

Sažetak: *U predstavljenoj studiji uvedeni su koncepti vremena, rada i slobodnog vremena, utvrđivanja zajedničkog i šta ih povezuje u odnosu na rad i privatni život. Glavni cilj empirijskog dijela bio je definisanje načina na koji pojedince iz različitih grupa u Crnoj Gori upravljaju svojim radom / slobodnim vremenom, stoga uključuju elemente rada i slobodnog vremena. Istraživanje se zasniva na analizi sledećih argumenata: percepciji pojedinca o njegovom korišćenju raspoloživog vremena, sklonosti za obavljanje hitnih zadataka, vremenskih razarača. Studija se fokusirala uglavnom na pitanja: Kako ispitanici koriste vrijeme za obavljanje zadataka na poslu? Kako se to odražava na njihov privatni život? Šta utiče na sklonost ispitanika da izvršavaju hitne zadatke? Koji faktor po njihovom mišljenju najodgovorniji za negativan uticaj na njihove performanse na poslu?*

Ključne riječi: *upravljanje vremenom, radno vrijeme, slobodno vrijeme, vremenski razarači, istraživanje, model upravljanja vremenom*

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1 Introduction

The increasing salience of time is reflected in theoretical as well as in practical publications. A great number of authors have discussed the need for better incorporation of time in theoretical models and research designs, others focused on the ways in which people in organizations manage their time, and on ways in which these efforts can be improved. In this article we will address time from the latter point of view and testing the model of time management in the context of working time and spare time.

In recent years, in the theory and practice, growing interest has taken over time management and how to make better use of the time we have at work and spare time. So, this paper deals with the research of time management, time spent, and concepts of time, work and spare time have been introduced, as well as what connects them, what they have in common and how to be efficient and effective in work and free time.

The theoretical and empirical part is given in the paper. The theoretical part relates to theoretical research on the time management and how to take advantage of the time available to people and where we lose valuable hours. The empirical part of the paper deals with the definition of how individuals from Montenegro manage their working and spare time. The research wants to answer the following questions: how I use my available time, what is my use of available time, what are the individual's preferences in performing urgent tasks and where individuals waste time. The survey is based on how respondents use working time, i.e. how doing work affects spare time, what are the individual's preferences in solving urgent tasks, and what, in the opinion of an individual, is what impacts negatively on performing a job.

The interest in time management isn't new (Macan, 1994) and has been the subject of research since the middle of the 20th century. Several authors proposed methods on how to use time on work (e.g. Drucker, 1967; Lakein, 1973; MacKenzie, 1972; McCay, 1959) and they suggested so-called "to-do lists" in order to increase job performance (Macan, 1994, 381). At the same time, some authors like Drucker, 1967 recognized that planning tasks and activities does not always lead to the completion of planned work, especially when time pressure is high. Additionally, modern technologies have changed the management of time and brought with them the speed of doing the job and at the same time mixing the free time and working time.

We also follow these findings but with slightest alternation as we aim to extend them from theory to the field of spare time. Due to modern technologies, this division is namely becoming increasingly unrecognizable. Garhammer (2002, 217–256) has pointed out that the increased pace of life is shown in doing things faster (acceleration), contracting time expenditure (e.g. eat faster, sleep less), and compressing actions (making a phone call while having lunch). Effective time management comes up with several positive outcomes such as productivity and psychological well-being.

A great number of authors have discussed about ways in which people in organizations manage their time, and on ways in which these efforts can be improved.

Theoretical and empirical research in domain of time management especially have been mentioned in second part of 20th century (Macan, 1994). Their expansion happened in last two decades of 20th century. The term of 'managing time' firstly appears in of McCay's 1959 book "The Management of Time" (McCay, 1959). McCay's model of time management proposed an effective way to monitor a manager's use of time. He developed a program for time management training which is still being used.

Macan found three factors which are related to measure of time management: setting/prioritizing, mechanics of time management (e.g. scheduling and planning;), and preference for organization. He also suggested world-known "to-do lists" in order to increase job performance.

Drucker (1967) identifies that managing time, is on of five practices essential to business effectiveness that must be learned. Also, this author proposed methods on how to handle time issues on job and recognized that activites and tasks related to planning does not always lead to the completion of planned work.

In this review it was used the five-point Likert scale (Brown, 2010) to examine measurement construct of this research. Also, in this review is used convenience sampling, which is type of nonprobability sampling, where respondents of the targeted population, meet certain practical criteria - availability of a given time, geographical proximity, easy accessibility etc. (Etikan, 2016; Lavrakas, 2008; Robinson, 2014).

Garhammer in his "Pace of Life and Enjoyment of Life" consider that time pressure "fulfils positive functions for mobilizing individual resources" (Garhammer, 2002).

Lakein (1973) searched for a difference in time management behaviors. His "How to Get Control of Your Time and Your Life" focuses on principles and techniques that you can tailor it to how you work, while still learning things that you have to practice.

MacKenzie in the book "The Time Trap: Managing Your Way Out" emphasizes the importance of planning related to goal-setting. He identifies twenty biggest time wasters and gives resolves to avoid them. This book can help people to have a better awareness of the time concept.

Raspor and Macuh (2017) based their research of "Testing the Model of Time management" on the analysis of the following arguments: (1) perception of an individual of his utilization of the time available, (2) propensity to perform urgent tasks, (3) time wasters.

On the ground of the presented theory, few hypotheses were formed in order to find out whether tipping practices in Montenegro is similar or differ concerning prior findings, especially in Slovenia (Raspor & Macuh, 2017).

The hypotheses are:

H1:   Insufficient (poor) use of working time affects private life. To test this hypothesis, it was formed two sets of statements which measure the aspect of balance between working and private life:

Q1 (11): I am not able to organize my day without being interrupted by someone = Q4 (5) I am constantly available for questions and comments from my co-workers.

Q1 (19): There is a constant conflict between my work and free time = Q3 (4) Waiting in the queue »drives« my mind to thinking about urgent tasks = Q3 (16): I often eat my meal while I work.

H2:   Most people perform urgent tasks only. This hypothesis is measured by the mean values of all statements.

H3:   Phone is the major time waster. This hypothesis is measured by the maximum value of the mean.

2 Methods

The survey in form of a structured interview was created in order to empirically explore the attitudes regarding time management in Montenegro. The sample was formed by convenience sampling (also known as availability or haphazard or accidental sampling) which is a non-probability/non-random sampling technique in order to create sample upon several criteria such as ease of access, geographical proximity, availability at given time, willingness to participate or sample is situated, spatially or administratively, near to location where researching is conducted (Lavrakas, 2008; Robinson, 2014; Etikan, 2016). Respondents were asked to fill out the questionnaire in presence of the researcher. It was created a sample which consisted of 53 respondents. The questionnaire was distributed in various companies located in Bar in Montenegro. Answers were collected in the period from September to December 2017.

The questionnaire contained questions regarding the planning and organization of work and free time, daily scheduled working and free time, organizing the work and time in solving emergency task situations. It was also investigated the reasons for the waste of time during the workday.

It was used the five-point Likert scale (Sullivan and Artino, 2013; Brown, 2010) from 1 (*I do not agree at all*) to 5 (*I totally agree*) in order to measure the intensity level of positive or negative attitude.

The obligatory part of the questionnaire was also set of socio-demographic questions in order to determine the profile of respondents.

Table 1: Basic information about respondents

		Number	*Percent*
Gender	Male	30	57.7
	Female	22	42.3
	Total	52	100.0
Age	till 24	13	25.0
	25-39	26	50.0
	40-54	11	21.2
	more than 55	2	3.8
	Total	52	100.0
The number of supervised employees in the company	myself	14	26.9
	Till 3	19	36.5
	Till 9	14	26.9
	More than 10	5	9.6
	Total	52	100.0
Branch	Public sector	11	20.8
	Services	28	52.8
	Production	7	13.2
	Unemployed	1	1.9
	Retiree/pensioner	6	11.3
	Total	53	100.0
Education	Vocational school	1	1.9
	High school	21	39.6
	University degree	27	50.9
	Specialization, MSc, PhD	4	7.5
	Total	53	100.0
Work description in general	Administration	25	49.0
	Production	26	51.0
	Total	51	100.0
Work description	CEO	4	8.0
	Manager	11	22.0
	Marketing	17	34.0
	Human resources	3	6.0
	Accounting	3	6.0
	Procurement sector	2	4.0
	Other administration	3	6.0
	Supervising production	1	2.0
	Production	6	12.0
	Total	50	100.0

Statistical data analysis was realized by IBM Statistic package for social science (SPSS) software version 20. For statistical analysis, the mean value was used to describe the main relationships among observed variables and to test the hypotheses.

3 Results

Looking at the mean value concerning the questions (Q1, Q3, and Q4) it could be noted as follows. In second table are presented data about planning and organizing working and free time (Q1).

Table 2: Data about planning and organizing working and free time

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I *don't spend* my time the way I would like to.	53	3.15	1.277
I have a feeling I am constantly *in a hurry*.	53	3.25	1.142
I suffer from the lack of time and overwork.	51	3.02	1.140
I don't achieve any progress in my work.	52	2.63	1.172
I work *more hours per day* than my co-workers.	49	2.84	1.124
I *take my work home*, to do it in the evening or at the end of the week.	52	2.21	1.091
I am mostly *stressed out* because there are many tasks to be done at the same time.	53	3.11	1.296
I have a *sense of guilt*, because I don't work better under the time distress.	53	2.62	1.259
Work is only *stress and effort* for me.	52	2.79	1.258
I *run* from one meeting to another one.	53	2.92	1.207
I am not able to *organize* my day without being interrupted by someone.	53	3.21	1.166
I may say I *don't have influence on* how I use the time available.	53	2.58	1.117
I can rarely afford *recreation*.	52	2.73	1.122
I *can't plan* my holidays and weekends more than 1 week in advance.	53	3.08	1.299
Boring, difficult and unpleasant tasks are *piling up* and I am only capable of solving them when they become urgent.	53	2.92	1.190
I mostly do my working tasks after the time my co-workers have *already finished theirs*.	53	2.42	0.908
I have a feeling I have to be *always involved in the productive tasks*.	53	3.45	1.030
If I leave work earlier, I have *a sense of guilt*.	53	2.92	1.328
There is a *constant conflict* between my work and free time.	52	3.31	1.213
I am not able to manage my tasks *within the deadline*.	53	2.32	0.936

Source: Own research

In question (Q1) about planning and organizing working and free time it was stated very high values of means near to 3 (2,87 in average) which means that respondents in general tend to be neutral (nor yes or no).

The minimum value of the mean is 2,21 with the statement "I take my work home, to do it in the evening or at the end of the week" which point that respondents don't thing that work tasks have to be realized at home.

The maximum value of the mean is 3,45 with the statement "I have a feeling I have to be always involved in the productive tasks" and that is mean that respondents have a feeling to be enough productive during the workday but in same time they have little bit positive attitude to statements such as "I have a feeling I am constantly in a hurry" (3,25) which point on some kind of stress.

Testing the hypotheses H1 it was measured attitudes toward particular statements in different groups of question.

Table 3: Organizing the work day data

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I work best when I am *under pressure.*	53	2.43	1.279
I often blame *rush and external pressures* for disturbance of my work and time.	52	3.02	1.244
I am often disappointed, because I think people *are slow.*	51	3.57	1.025
Waiting in the queue »drives« my mind to thinking about urgent tasks.	53	3.42	1.008
I have **a** *sense of guilt* when I don't work.	52	3.19	1.189
I mostly have a feeling of a *hurry* to get to different places and events.	52	3.12	1.003
I delegate the working tasks (if you are not a supervisor (team leader)) – I ask my co-workers to help me finish them but then I *take over* and finish them on my own.	53	3.08	0.997
I often *push off* my co-workers to finish the task by myself.	53	2.77	1.137
I feel *uncomfortable* when I am not available in the office for few minutes.	53	2.53	1.067
When I am dealing with one task, I often think about another one.	53	2.96	1.192
I am the best at handling the crisis.	53	3.40	1.080
The *adrenaline rush* satisfies me more than gradually approaching long-term goal.	53	2.72	1.063
I often *sacrifice quality time* with important people in my life in order to solve a crisis.	52	2.83	0.944
I assume people will understand when I *have to leave* to solve a crisis.	53	3.43	1.101
Solving a crisis gives me a *feeling of importance.*	53	3.45	1.234
I often eat my meal while I work.	53	3.26	1.211
I think one day I will *be able to do* what I want.	53	3.96	1.073
I rarely think how to eliminate future problems.	53	3.11	1.050
At the end of the day a lot of completed tasks *make me feel productive.*	53	4.06	0.949
I want to be present on every meeting, even if the meeting is not completely connected with my current task.	53	3.11	1.266

Source: Own research

The attitudes of respondents to statements: Q1 (11): I am not able to organize my day without being interrupted by someone (3.21) and Q4 (5) I am constantly available for questions and comments from my co-workers (4,0) were different, slightly above neutral for Q1 (11) and positive for Q4 (5). Also, the attitudes toward statements Q1 (19): There is a constant conflict between my work and free time (3,31) and Q3 (4) Waiting in the queue »drives« my mind to thinking about urgent tasks (3,42) and Q3 (16): I often eat my meal while I work (3,26) were almost equal, little bit above neutral. The first hypotheses according to mean values is partially confirmed which means that respondents in Montenegro were rather neutral on statement that Insufficient (poor) use of working time affects private life. In table 3 are presented data regarding the organization of the work day (Q3).

The values of means concerning the organizing the work day (Q3) were close to the value of 3. The mean of all values is 3,17, which means that the average attitude is rather to be neutral. The minimum value of the mean is 2,43 with the statement "I work best when I am under pressure". The maximum value of the mean is 4,06 with the statement "At the end of the day a lot of completed tasks make me feel productive". The majority of

the participants do not agree that they work best when they are under pressure, but they are agreeing that the amount of completed tasks makes them feel productive.

The hypothesis H2 (Most people perform urgent tasks only) could be confirmed by the majority of mean values which points that completing tasks in working time is very important to fell to be productive. In table 4 are presented data concerning the reasons for waste of working time (Q4).

Table 4: The reasons for waste of working time data

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
The *telephone* is ringing and disturbing me all the time.	52	2.87	1.299
I don't use a cell phone as a tool for business communication. I mainly use it as a tool *to keep in touch with other people.*	51	2.98	1.086
I can't succeed in finishing my tasks because of the *unannounced visitors.*	51	2.61	1.060
The meetings take me too much time and the result are often unsatisfactory.	52	2.63	1.121
I am constantly available for questions and comments from my co-workers.	51	4.00	.849
Because I am *disorganized,* my meetings last too long or I have problems finishing them.	50	2.88	1.043
I have a tendency of *postponing* large. time consuming or unpleasant tasks.	51	2.53	0.924
I often don't have precisely planned *priorities*, so I am trying to finish too many tasks at the same time.	52	2.54	1.093
I pay *too much attention to the details* and as a result I lack time for more important tasks.	52	2.83	1.133
Due to the lack of time I am unable to finish my task within the deadline. since in the meanwhile something *unexpected* comes up or I have too many things planned at the same time.	52	2.62	1.013
My working desk is *not organized* due to *piles of papers* surrounding me.	52	2.50	1.094
I *archive* my documents in the way that I have problems finding them later.	52	2.62	1.174
I spend too much time for *correspondence* and reading.	52	2.77	1.131
When I receive an e-mail. I *stop working* and focus on the e-mail.	51	2.80	1.096
Communication between me and my co-workers is often unsatisfactory.	52	2.90	1.176
Misunderstandings and working mistakes are common because of the *bad communication flow.*	52	2.71	0.997
Delegating the tasks is rarely satisfactory, therefore I frequently have to do the tasks myself.	52	3.31	1.020
I hardly *say no* when someone expects something from me.	52	3.10	1.071
I often *lack motivation* to work since the goals are not clearly set.	52	2.69	1.164
Sometimes I lack *self-discipline* to achieve the planned goal.	52	2.87	1.284

Source: Own research

Looking at the reasons for waste of working time (Q4) it could be signed that values of means are also near to 3 (2.84) which is closer to neutral than negative attitude.

The minimum value of the mean is 2.50 with the statement "My working desk is not organized due to piles of papers surrounding me". The maximum value of the mean is 4.00 with the statement »I am constantly available for questions and comments from my co-workers.«. The respondents mostly do not agree that their working desk is not organized due to piles of papers and they agree that they are they are being constantly on disposal to others.

Due to that answers it cannot be confirmed the hypothesis H3.

4 Discussion

The review "Testing the model of time management in Montenegro" through a theoretical and practical vision examines the incorporation of work and spare time in the context of management time. In order to improve the quality of both. Earlier studies, researches from time management have used to observe at one or another time, while this review seeks to establish trends in time consumption, relation of work and free time in terms of their use, as well as to test efficiency and effectiveness in work and free time. The article sublimates the theoretical and empirical framework of time management research. Theoretically, it seeks to examine where people spend the most of their available time, and what are the models of using time in order to improve the quality of work and free time.

The empirical framework of the research observes how respondents from Montenegro manage with free time. Attention is drawn to the planning and organization of free time. the organization of work tasks and the reasons for "time wasting" in working time. On the basis of the above, we have made the following conclusion: two of three hypotheses can be considered confirmed, while the third hypothesis is not confirmed.

In our work, we partially confirmed hypothesis 1 (*Insufficient (poor) use of working time affects private life*). Therefore. respondents in Montenegro prefer to stay neutral in relation to the statement that insufficient use of working time affects private life.

Hypothesis 2 (*Most people perform urgent tasks only*) is confirmed by the majority claim that respondents complete their working duties in working hours and on that way they increase their feeling of being productive.

Hypothesis 3 (*Phone is the major time waster*) has not been confirmed because respondents disagree with that. Most of the time, respondents lose answering questions from their colleagues. or being constantly available to others.

We believe that future comparative researches with the content of work and free time, and their interaction, will contribute to more efficient and effective use of the work and spare time of individuals. For this, more specific methods and analyses should be used, having on the mind the potential contribution for increasing productivity and performance.

This review has identified some aspects of planning, organization, priorities, difficulties and good practices of time management. Each of them can serve as a conceptual framework for further research and deepening research topics from the domain of time organization.

5 Conclusion

The research was conducted on the convenience sample by questionnaire. This means that participation was voluntary, and we cannot generalise the results to the population. Therefore, sampling was one of the limitations factors of the research which could be done better in the future research.

Practical implications can be seen from the results of the study that can stimulate individuals to use better their working and spare time and to researchers to research and to create models of time management for companies. for employees and for themselves. There are lots of research about theoretical issue of time management and working time, but there are not lots of research about comparative analysis about using working and spare time and how they effect on each other and how individuals can improve using if they time for work and for free time. That is the place that this research and this paper has originality and value for individuals. researchers and companies.

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4   Trends and Forecast of Slovenian Gambling

Andrej Raspor[*] | Darko Lacmanović[**]

Abstract: *Four central arguments made in this article are: (1) Gambling was an important industry for Slovenia, because it allowed invisible exports. (2) Cross-border gambling is an important part of gambling for Slovenia. (3) Gambling is a capital- and labour-intensive industry. (4) In the development of gambling online gaming must not be ignored. The main research question is How important is gaming for Slovenia and what proportion is gambling revenue in national GDP, government expenditure and in employment?*

For the purpose of this research, the data was collected from the Slovenian statistical office or national gambling supervisory office. The main reason in using these sources is intention to observe the total revenue in gambling industry which is important for our discussion. The task to be solved in this paper is to analyze the dataset that is the revenue of gambling within seventeen years (from 2000 to 2016) in order to find out some patterns, cyclical or seasonal features or other significant information that allows to do forecasting of the future consumption with the certain degree of accuracy. The datasets are analyzed using the Tableau 10.4.

Slovenian gambling is export oriented. 75% of players come from abroad, most are Italians, Austrians, and Chinese. In Slovenia, after 2008, there was no noticeable investment in gambling. Investments in online casinos are also small. The gaming industry has changed a lot in last ten years. It is, therefore, necessary to completely revise the Slovenian gaming business model. This fact is the new one and that is the key added value in the article.

Keywords: *Slovenia, gambling, revenues, GDP, tax*

Trendi in napovedi igralništva v Sloveniji

Povzetek: *Članek obravnava štiri osrednje argumente: (1) igralništvo je bilo v preteklosti za Slovenijo pomembna panoga, ker je omogočala neviden izvoz; (2) čezmejno igralništvo je pomemben del slovenskega igralništva; (3) igralništvo je kapitalsko in delovno intenzivna panoga; (4) ne smemo prezreti razvoja spletnega igralništva. Glavno raziskovalno vprašanje se glasi: kako pomembno je igralništvo za Slovenijo in kakšen delež predstavljajo prihodki od igralništva v nacionalnem BDP, državnih izdatkih in kako se to odraža v zaposlovanju?*

Za namene te raziskave so bili zbrani podatki iz Statističnega urada Slovenije oziroma Finančnega urada – igre na srečo. Glavni razlog za uporabo teh virov je da bi zajeli skupne igralniške prihodke. Naloga, ki jo je treba rešiti v tem prispevku, je analiza zbranih podatkov o prihodkih od iger na srečo za sedemnajst let (od leta 2000 do leta 2016), da bi prepoznali vzorce, ciklične ali sezonske značilnosti ali druge pomembne informacije, ki omogočajo napovedovanje prihodnje igralniške potrošnje z določeno stopnjo natančnosti. Podatkovni nizi so bili analizirani s programom Tableau 10.4.

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Slovensko igralništvo je izvozno usmerjeno. 75% igralcev prihaja iz tujine, največ je Italijanov, sledijo Avstrijci in Kitajci. Po letu 2008 v Sloveniji ni bilo opaznih igralniških naložb. Prav tako se ni razvijalo spletno igralništvo. Igralniška industrija se je v zadnjih desetih letih zelo spremenila, zato je treba v celoti revidirati poslovni model slovenskega igralništva. To dejstvo, ki izhaja iz same raziskave, je novo in ga lahko opredelimo kot ključno dodano vrednost prispevka.

Ključne besede*: Slovenija, igre na srečo, prihodki, BDP, davki*

1 Introduction

Gaming and gambling as a phenomenon are not new. Its beginnings can be found already in the pre-Christian times and it can be claimed to be as old as humanity itself (Kuss & Griffiths, 2012). Bolen and Boyd defined gambling as playing games with an uncertain result that is determined (at least partly) by chance. Gambling is undergoing major changes. In 1994 we have entered the internet gambling era when the Antiguan government passed a law that allowed online casinos to be established within its borders (Cotte & Latour, 2008). The ability to partake in online gambling is a result of the technological advances of the Internet, gambling software, and secure payment systems. This type of activity will only develop in the future. According to Bloomberg casinos are among the largest industries on earth - 12th place in 2016 (Bloomberg, 2016).

Four central arguments made in this article are: (1) gambling was an important industry for Slovenia, because it allowed invisible exports; (2) cross-border gambling is an important part of gambling for Slovenia; (3) gambling is a capital- and labour-intensive industry; (4) in the development of gambling online gaming must not be ignored.

The main research question is: *How important is gaming for Slovenia and what proportion is gambling revenue in national GDP, government expenditure and in employment*?

The paper is now organised as follows. Section two covers the theoretical background of gambling. Section three presents main research results. Section four considers the theoretical background and research results discuss the assumed question from the research with Slovenian gambling. Section five offers the main paper conclusion.

2 Literature review

2.1 History of gambling

The dictionary definition of gambling is that it is the activity of betting with money, for example in a game or on a horse race. On the other hand gaming is the risking of money in games of chance, especially at a casino (Cambridge Dictionary of American English; Dictionary of American English 2012). Gaming and gambling as a phenomenon is not new and can be found in almost all cultures and in most parts of the world (Custer & Milt, 1985). Gambling can be defined as playing games with an uncertain result that is determined (at least partly) by chance (Bolen & Boyd, 1968) and it can be claimed to be

as old as humanity itself (Kuss & Griffiths, 2012). In fact, there is evidence from period that prehistoric men liked to gamble; several anthropological studies show instruments and objects that might have been used in gambling, though they have been associated more with magic than with recreation (Petry, 2005). The four astragali of the gambler were customarily used in the temples of classical Greece and Rome, and the ceremony was much the same as for odds and evens (David, 1962). When the Romans arrived, they brought with them their taste for gambling of all kinds. This is witnessed by dice made from bones, metal or ivory found in archaeological excavations all over the territory of the Roman empire. In the Middle Ages, games such as cards, dice and forms of chess were popular, and there were gambling houses where bets could be placed. Later, laws were passed to regulate these establishments and to prevent their proliferation (Jiménez-Murcia et al. 2014). The legislation also sought to preserve public order, prevent loan-sharking and collect taxes for the coffers of the Crown (eg. Venezia, Belgium, France, etc.). Historical evidence suggests that gambling was common in Aboriginal communities before British settlement (Delfabbro & King, 2012). Even though often taking the forms of traditional activities including objects carved from plant or animal matter, there are evidences that some communities were under influence from the passing European traders (Breen, 2008).

Casinos have grown incredibly after the first modern casino in Venice (1638). During the 18th and 19th century, a series of European SPA towns, culminating in Monte Carlo, hosted casinos. In the United States, during those same years, gambling developed both in illegal urban gambling halls and in the wide-open saloons of the western frontier. Those two sides of American gambling came together in Nevada's legal casinos, whose current regime dates from 1931. Developing with strong help from elements affiliated with organized crime, these casinos eventually outgrew their rough-hewn routes, becoming sun-drenched pleasure palaces on the Las Vegas Strip. With Nevada casinos proving successful, other states, beginning with New Jersey in 1976, rolled the dice. From there, casinos have come to America's tribal lands, rivers, and urban centres. In the same time in Europe countries (Italy, Germany, Yugoslavia, Austria, etc.) legalized and opened own casino offer. Some of them are domestic (Italy, Austria, Holland, etc.), other foreign tourists (Yugoslavia, Monte Carlo, etc.) oriented. In the last decade, gambling has moved online while Asia, with multi-billion dollar projects in Macau and Singapore, has become a new casino frontier (Schwartz, 2013). In 1994 the Antiguan government passed a law that allowed online casinos to be established within its borders (Cotte & Latour, 2008). The global market which represents the ability to partake in online gambling is a result of technological advances in the Internet, in better gambling software and of course in secured payment systems. In accordance with that the global market was 463 billion in 2016 (Bloomberg, 2016). According to Bloomberg from 2016, casinos are among the largest industries on Earth coming in at the 12th place (Ibid). There has been an increase in online gambling, with the concomitant movement of gambling into the home which reduces the ability to control the negative aspects of the gaming.

2.2. Overview of legal regimes and revenues from gambling in selected countries

World index of growth from 2001 (209 billion USD) to 2016 (385 billion USD) ('The world's biggest gamblers', 2017) is 2.22. The global casino gaming market to grow at a *Compound Annual Growth Rate* (*CAGR*) of 10.16% during the period 2017-2021 (Wood, 2017) and revenue from gambling is expected to reach 635 billion USD by 2022 (Pempus, 2016). Asia Pacific is the major growth region in this market due to the emergence of major casinos in the region that are operated by the US-based companies which will divert some of the US overseas-derived business in the region. Gambling is front and centre because many countries are looking to beef up their respective tourism industries. Las Vegas and Macao may be synonymous with gambling, but the industry's biggest expo is actually held in London, Gibraltar and Malta. Online gaming is the industry's fastest-growing sector and accounted for 11% of the 385 billion USD of gambling profits posted in 2016 ('The world's biggest gamblers', 2017). Other segments have a stable growth.

To the general public, Australia hardly leaps to mind as a gambling hotbed. According to H2 Gambling Capital (H2G), a consultancy, betting losses per resident adult there amounted to 990 USD last year. That is 40% higher than Singapore ('The world's biggest gamblers', 2017). For our research the behaviour of Italian, Austrian or Croatian citizens is important. Italians are in the ninth place with 390 USD, half of this on gambling machines.

The online gambling industry has now entered its official 20th year of existence (Fontenot, 2016). The first recorded online casino to accept a wager was based in Antigua in 1996. And become exponentially popular with the explosion of internet access over the last two decades (Krogulecki, 2017). However, data detailing how much individuals play and spend on online gaming are not readily available or accessible. Some have speculated on the causes of this growth. For example, it has been suggested that online poker, a game that draws many online players, and betting exchanges have grown for three reasons: they provide financial value for the gambler, without a casino house edge or bookmakers' mark-up on odds; gamblers may win because the games require some element of skill when bets are placed; and gamblers may compete directly with other gamblers instead of a pre-programmed machine with fixed odds (Griffiths, Parke, Wood, & Parke, 2006).

Approximately 85 nations had elected to legalize online gaming as of 2011 (Stewart & Gray, 2011) in 2017 is number around 90 (Raspor, Bulatović, Stranjančević, & Lacmanović, 2018). Stewart & Gray divided those countries into three groups with similar qualities or policy characteristics. The first group consists of small jurisdictions in the western hemisphere, which offer low-cost licensing to operators with low tax rates and little or no regulatory scrutiny; they view online gambling strictly as a means of economic development. The second group consists of small jurisdictions in Europe that also regulate online gaming for economic development but have more regulations

compared to the first group. The final group consists of larger, developed countries (such as the United Kingdom). Those that fall into the third category face the challenge of their markets being invaded by websites originating from the jurisdiction of the first two groups (Stewart & Gray, 2011).

The top five emerging trends driving the global online gambling market according to Technavio, media and entertainment research analysts, are (Maida, 2016):
- Growing number of online women gamblers.
- Increasing penetration of credit and debit cards.
- Changing consumer gambling habits.
- Use of alternative options to cash.
- Changing marketing strategies.

There has been a significant change in consumer behaviour in the global online gambling market. The increase in the popularity of gambling apps and social gambling are the major factors that are expected to propel market growth during the forecast period (Maida, 2016). Many industry insiders see VR gambling as one of the key areas that gambling operators are investing in to 'hook' the Generation Y 'millennials' into gambling. Today's modern screen-agers love technology and do not appear to have any hang-ups about using wearable technology including Fitbit and the Apple Watch (Griffiths, 2017).

The casino industry contributes significantly to a country's economy. It accounts for 0.45% of the US GDP. The revenue generated by casinos can be used to support economic activities such as building schools and hospitals. The casino industry has the potential to create numerous jobs considering the number of individuals required (Wood, 2017).

Gambling and gaming markets in Austria are stable. In the period 2001 to 2016, there is constant grow (index 1.3) and this growth continues in a strong manner in 2016 but with fallen in share in GDP (index 0.8) in the same period. Average share of gambling and betting activities in the GDP is 0.45%. Betting and online casinos have shown the biggest growth (Raspor et al., 2018).

In Croatia the average share of gambling and betting activities in the GDP (in period 2001-2016) is 0.623%, i.e. in terms of the growth index (base in 2001) in 2017 a coefficient 2.26 is registered. While the number of gambling companies remains unchanged, the number of employees has increased 3 times (Raspor et al., 2018).

The Italian market is main regulated gambling market in Europe and the fourth in world in terms of gross gambling revenue (Calvosa, 2017, 17). In the period 2001 to 2016, there is constant grow (index 6.64). Average share of Gambling and betting activities in GDP (in period 2001-2016) is 3.37%, i.e. in terms of the growth index (base in 2001) in 2017 a coefficient 5.08 is registered. While the number of gambling companies remains unchanged, the number of employees has increased 3 times (Raspor et al., 2018). The biggest increases are for betting and VLT salons (Agenzia delle dogane e dei Monopoli, 2017).

3 Methodology and sample

In this work we have followed a methodology. It includes three steps shown (Figure 1): (1) Data collection; (2) Analysing the data using tools; (3) Forecasting process.
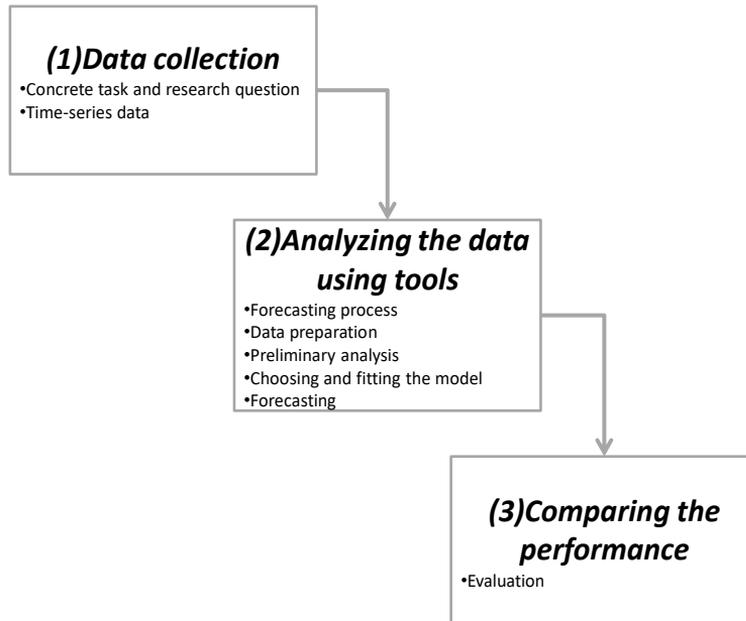
Figure 1: Research methodology

3.1 Data collection

For the purpose of this research, the data was collected from the Slovenia's national statistical office or national gambling supervisory office. The main reason in using these sources is intention to observe the total revenue in gambling industry which is important for our discussion.

3.1.1. Concrete task and research question

The task to be solved in this paper is to analyse the dataset that is the revenue of gambling within seventeen years (from 2000 to 2016) in order to find out some patterns, cyclical or seasonal features or other significant information that allows forecasting of the future consumption with a certain degree of accuracy. The main research question is *How important is gaming for Slovenia and what proportion is gambling revenue in national GDP, government expenditure and in employment*?

Time-series data

The dataset represents the consumption from gambling and GDP with a one-year sampling rate over a period of seventeen years. The data presents different quantities and some sub-metering values and is a typical representative of a time-series data that can be defined as a sequence of observed values. One of the most distinctive features

of the time-series is that data is not generated independently; their dispersion varies in time, and often is governed by a trend and has cyclic components. An observed time series can be decomposed into three components: the trend (long term direction), the seasonal (systematic, calendar related movements) and the irregular (unsystematic, short term fluctuations) (Beliaeva, Petrochenkov, & Bade, 2013).

3.2. Analysing the data using tools

Several scientific methods have been used for the purposes of this paper. In order to define the guidelines for development and improvement of casino tourism in Slovenia, we used a management strategy tool, Gap Analysis. The Goal of Gap Analysis is to answer four key questions: Where are we now? (A); Where are we likely to be? (B); Where do we want to be? (C); and how to overcome the gap between B and C? (Pearce, Robinson,1997; Thompson and Strickland 2001; David 2011). Our gap analysis model (Figure 2) is depicted below.

Within the scope of the point A: Casino tourism in Slovenia actual situation, we provide quantitative analysis.

To define point B: Casino tourism in Slovenia − a realistic scenario where we used econometrics. There is no precise definition of econometrics. One would say that those are all so-called economics tricks, while the others would define econometrics as the application of statistics and mathematics in economics to prove hypotheses and foresee the future of trends (Moosa, 2017). Thanks to the autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) model (Akaike Info Criterion), a model that is used to predict the time series, we gave a forecast of gambling income by the end of 2027. That is the realistic scenario of development based on average growth rate for observed period. We analysed yearly time series from 2000 to 2016 (17 observations in total).
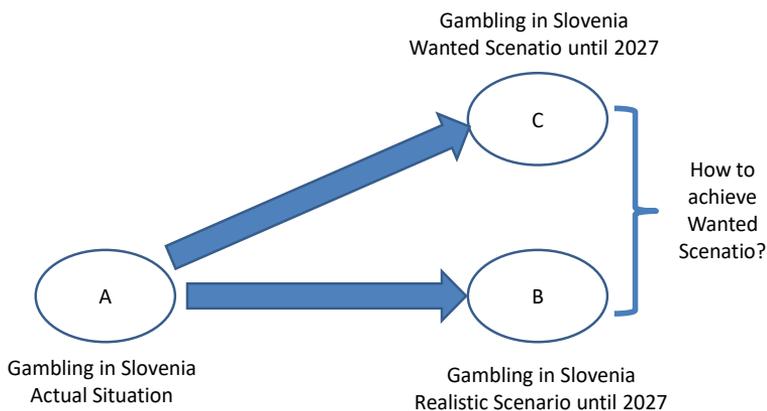
Figure 2: Gap analysis model. Source: own.

The point C: Gambling tourism in Slovenia wanted scenario foresees that the gambling business in Slovenia. We will comment on the data in Table 2 (entries, consumption) and the strategy of Slovenian gambling. The dawn of which changes are necessary insofar

as progress is desired. This is the second step of our methodology. Here the datasets are analysed using the Tableau 10.4.

3.3. Forecasting process

Forecasting is a process of estimating the unknown. It can be defined as the science of predicting future outcomes. Forecast should have the following characteristics: it should be timely, it should be as accurate as possible; it should be reliable; it should be in meaningful units. In order to do the forecasting process the following steps should be computed (Nolan 1994; Armstrong 2001):
1. definition of the purpose of the forecasting;
2. data preparation;
3. preliminary analysis;
4. choosing and fitting the best model;
5. forecasting;
6. evaluation.

Data preparation

For analysing the consumption of gambling and its share in GDP in Slovenia the following attributes are required: Year, Revenue from gambling and betting, GDP. We calculated: gambling and betting in GDP; basic gambling income index (2000); basic index of gambling revenues in GDP (2000), for all observed years.

Preliminary analysis

A good way for understand the data is visualization in order to find out some consistent patterns or a significant trend. With the help of Tableau 10.4, a powerful statistic tool for exploration and visualization of the datasets, the graphics for the different time periods are constructed (Tableau, 2014).

Choosing and fitting the model

Next step is to determine the appropriate model that fits the data. For that purpose we use Box and Jenkins approach (Box, Jenkins, Reinsel, & Ljung, 2015) that allows selecting from a group of forecasting models the one that is the best to fit the time series data. The ARIMA (autoregressive integrated moving average) modelling can be applied to the most types of time series data. The forecasting accuracy of ARIMA model is considered by scientist to be of a high degree (Beliaeva et al., 2013).

Forecasting

The forecasting is done for the period from 2017 to 2027. The results of the prediction with respect to year`s period are presented at the Figure 3 and 4.

$$\hat{y}_{t+h|t} = \ell_t + s_{t-m+h_m^+}$$
$$\ell_t = \alpha(y_t - s_{t-m}) + (1-\alpha)\ell_{t-1}$$
$$s_t = \gamma(y_t - \ell_{t-1}) + (1-\gamma)s_{t-m}$$

3.4. Comparing the performance

This is the last and final step of the proposed methodology. We have given the screen shots which was obtain at the time of analysing the dataset.

Evaluation
Evaluation was made by using the Mean absolute scaled error (MASE) which is the most reliable according to Hyndman and Koehler (Table 1).

Table 1: Forecast error measures

Sum of Revenue from gambling and betting in millions of EUR in current prices

Model			Quality Metrics					Smoothing Coefficients		
Level	Trend	Season	RMSE	MAE	MASE	MAPE	AIC	Alpha	Beta	Gamma
Additive	Additive	None	33,8	27,8	1,46	8,10%	130	0,5	0,5	0

Sum of Revenue from gambling and betting in millions of EUR in fixed prices

Model			Quality Metrics					Smoothing Coefficients		
Level	Trend	Season	RMSE	MAE	MASE	MAPE	AIC	Alpha	Beta	Gamma
Additive	Additive	None	38,5	33,4	1,3	8,10%	134	0,5	0	0

Source: Tableau output; own research

If the MASE is lower than 1 the forecast model is right (Hyndman & Koehler, 2006). In the table 1 you will see that in all cases MASE is higher than 1. From this point of view, the forecast is not reliable. On the other side, MAPE measures the magnitude of the error compared to the magnitude of data, as a percentage. So, a MAPE of 20% is better than a MAPE of 60%. As we see it is MAPE 8,10 %. These results represent the mean value accuracy of the forecast.

4 Results

According to Luin (Luin, 2004), the first casino in what is now Slovenia was opened 1913 in Portorož on the Slovenian coast. In the period of Yugoslavian Monarchy system gambling was prohibited as it was in another European countries in that time (Makarović, Macur, & Rončević, 2011). After the Second World War in The Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia the allowed lottery gambling were only for the reason of humanitarian and cultural purposes on the approval of Ministry of Finance, in accordance within the act of 1946 (Ibid).

There are three distinctive periods in gambling regulation in Slovenia and former Yugoslavia. In the first period, the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 1965 allowed all of its constituent republics to regulate gambling by their own legislative instruments. In Slovenia ("socialist republic" within the Yugoslav federation) a law was introduced about "special games" that also included casino gambling. This law allowed casino gambling for foreign tourists only and with playing games in foreign currency (USD, DEM, ITL).

The first Slovenian casino was opened (as an experiment) in Portorož in 1964 when Slovenia was a part of Yugoslavia. Although the law strictly prohibited foreign companies from participating, Casino San Remo actually cooperated in the management of the casino in Portorož up until 1969. Politicians were 'knowingly tolerating' the

obvious violation of the law, since the foreign partner had assisted the casino's start-up. A casino in Bled, Slovenia's most renowned Alpine resort, was opened in 1965. Ljubljana was another city that met the criteria in terms of hotel rooms and so a casino there opened in 1969, but was closed shortly thereafter because of irregularities (Hojnik & Luin, 2016).

In the second period, in the 1980s, this law changed to some extent what meant that casino gambling became the main attraction in some tourist destinations, such as Nova Gorica, through the shift toward an "American" concept of casino gambling (Makarović et al., 2011).

In the third period, after the 1990s, casino gambling became more liberalized since the prohibition for Slovenian citizens to play in the casino was abolished in 1995. It was established the new concept of concession contracts among state and providers of gambling services. A new system of concession contracts between the state and the providers of gambling services was established (Luin, 2004). "Gambling has" (smaller casinos equipped with slot machines) become more common and accessible to the local Slovenian population. The actual systemic legislation since adoption in 1995., was later amended in 2001., 2003., 2010. and 2012. The new legislative proposals passed in 2015., allowed further liberalization.

There are two types of gambling according to the Slovenian legislation: the "classical" gambling and casino gambling. "Classical gambling" includes lotteries, lotteries with instant prizes, quiz lotteries, bingo, lotto, sports betting, sports pools, raffles and other similar games. There are two operators which administrate the "classical games": Loterija Slovenije (The Lottery of Slovenia), that runs eight different series of games and Športna loterija (The Sports Lottery), that runs six games. Games such as lotteries, bingo and raffles could be organized occasionally, by humanitarian and non-profit associations (Makarović et al., 2011).

Additionally, the law defined two places where special gambling could be organized: casinos and gambling halls. The government, by the law, could award concessions for up to 15 casinos and up to 45 gambling halls. A great increase (+47%) was recorded between 2002 and 2007 in the number of gambling halls due to legislative liberalization in 2001. and 2003 (Zagoršek, Jaklič, & Zorič, 2007), when the number rose to 13 casinos and 34 gaming rooms. Later on, the decline begins. Currently, there are 10 casinos and 26 gaming halls (Ministrstvo za finance, 2017).

An important restriction in Slovenian legislation concerning gambling is the age restriction, such as Article 83 of Gambling Act which defined that those younger than 18 years are not allowed to engage in casino-style gambling and they are also prohibited from entering the casino. For other types of gambling, there are no age restrictions.

Slovenia got the first Strategy of the Slovenian gaming industry in 1997 (Vesenjak & Luin, 1997) and last in 2010 (Vlada Republike Slovenije, 2010). Before the first strategy the gambling was regulated in the framework of the Strategy of Slovenian Tourism

(Sirše, Stroj-Vrtačnik, & Pobega, 1993). The last strategy has no defined period of validity. However, due to changes in the gaming market, it should be updated.

In Table 2 we present some indicators of Slovenian gaming and business environment. The data for a comprehensive comparison is cited for the period 2007-2016. This includes the period before and after the major global economic crisis.

We can see that index of GDP 2016/2007 is 1.13. but government expenditure is 1.17. Number of employees has fallen (index 0.97).

Table 2: Overview of some indicators of Slovenian gaming and business environment

in 1,000 EUR	2007	2010	2015	2016	Index 2016/07
1.1 GDP	35,153,000	36,252,000	38,543,000	39,769,000	1.13
1.2 Government expenditure	8,148,030	9,874,155	9,947,105	9,540,115	1.17
1.3 Employees	853,999	818,975	803,644	824,485	0.97
2.1 Gross revenue from classic gambling	60,500	64,644	62,915	58,730	0.97
2.2 Tax	26,100	27,700	27,700	25,400	0.97
3.1 Gross revenue from casino gambling	355,799	298,570	239,600	247,316	0.70
3.1.1 Gross revenue from slot	291,060	246,671	199,764	205,174	0.70
3.1.2 Gross revenue from table games	64,740	51,899	39,836	42,142	0.65
3.1.3 Gross revenue from online	0	0	7	97	
3.2. Tips	15,604	10,615	7,380	7,433	0.48
3.2.1 Tips slot	62	692	1,224	1,259	20.34
3.2.2 Tips table games	15,542	9,923	6,156	6,174	0.40
3.3 Admission	743	128	93	82	0.11
3.4 Concession fee	57,506	48,134	38,509	39,306	0.68
3.4 Tax	64,115	53,773	43,195	44,669	0.70
4.1 Gross revenue - TOTAL	416,299	363,214	302,515	306,046	0.74
4.2 Duties - TOTAL (Tax + concession fee)	147,721	129,607	109,404	109,375	0.74
5 Guest entry	4,830	4,565	3,676	4,226	0.87
5.1 Domestic guests	1,518	1,230	1,013	1,033	0.68
5.2 Foreign guests	3,312	3,335	2,664	3,193	0.96
in number					
6.1 Company in sector gambling and betting	49	57	48	46	0.94
6.2 Casino	13	9	10	10	0.77
6.3 Slot hall	34	32	26	26	0.76
6.4 Table	279	260	281	277	0.99
6.5 Slots	8,649	8,648	8,084	8,028	0.93
7. Employees gambling and betting	2,840	2,526	2,154	2,299	0.81
Gross revenue - TOTAL in GDP	1.18%	1.00%	0.78%	0.77%	0.65
Tax in government expenditure	1.81%	1.31%	1.10%	1.15%	0.63
Employees gambling and betting in employees	0.33%	0.31%	0.27%	0.28%	0.84

Source: Ministrstvo za finance 2017; SURS; own research.

With the exception of tips on slot machines, all indicators are worse than in 2007.

As we can see (Figure 3), the revenues of Slovenian gaming are falling over all types of games in period of 2000 to 2016. We have data for online gambling since 2000. But this

is a revenue that is not important, as this kind of gambling is intended for domestic guests.
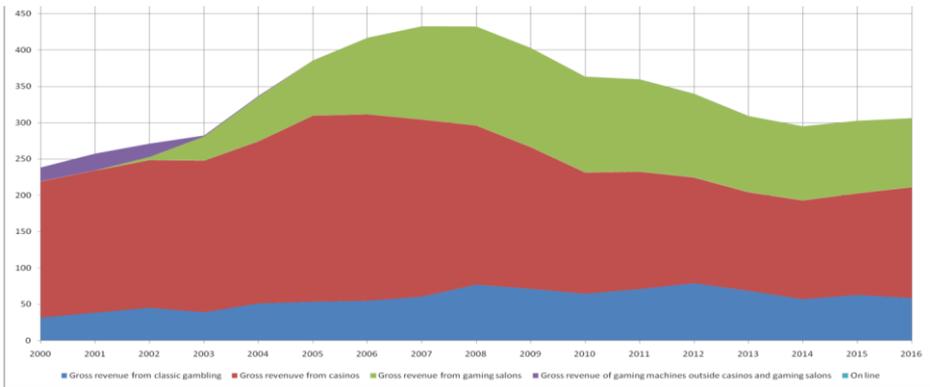
Figure 3: Revenue from gambling in Slovenia (prices 2000-2016).
Source: Ministrstvo za finance, 2017.

This is all the more apparent when we compare current and fixed prices. The real fall is more than 80 percent (Figure 4).

Slovenian gambling is export oriented. 75% of players come from abroad. Most are Italians, Austrians, and Chinese. In Slovenia, after 2008, there was no noticeable investment in gambling. Investments in online casinos are also small.
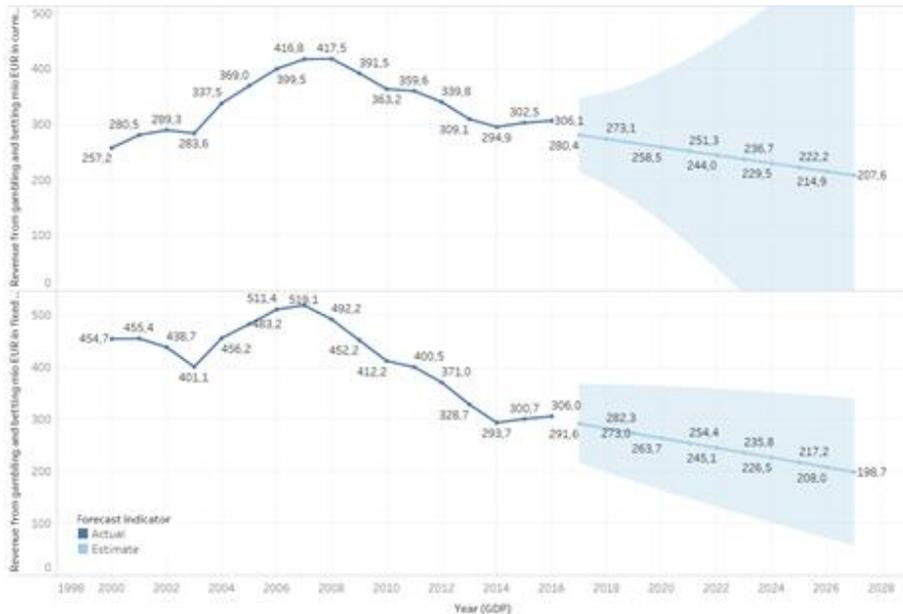
Figure 4: Revenue from gambling in Slovenia (current and fixed prices 2000-2027).
Source: Ministrstvo za finance, 2017; SURS; Tableau output; own research

We take the optimistic scenario as a target. This means that in 2027, EUR 423.34 million should be created at current prices.

We prepare data regarding the amount of revenue from gambling companies in GDP in current prices in order to make some comparisons. Next step was to prepare index of this share from 2000 to 2016.

From Table 3 it can be seen that Slovenia will maintain only a negligible growth of gambling revenues in the period 2017-2027. This dictates that a business model needs to be changed. Growth will continue to lag behind with the growth on a global scale. Even in the most optimistic scenario in 2027, the nominal revenues of 2008 will not be reached.

Based on the results analysis and discussion, it could be noted that the research question is well chosen and represent the main problem exposed in this paper.

5 How to achieve wanted scenario?

With the above analyses and forecasts we have created points A, B, and C. A question arises of how the desired gambling revenues can be achieved by 2027. The answers can be found in the strategic management. Gambling can become casino tourism with smart policy. This has greater added value than gambling alone. As Piner and Paradis (2004) have pointed out, we can also say that planning long-term casino tourism in Slovenia is a priority. One of the key disadvantages of the Slovenian casino tourism is the lack of strategy for its development. Strategic management primarily implies the analysis of the middle of the destination (internal and external) in order to define the vision of development of casino tourism in Slovenia. The basic assumption is that the vision must be precise, clear, specific, recognizable, and that it does not rely too much on superlatives. The vision of the casino of tourism in Slovenia by 2027 would be: *Slovenia will be recognized on the tourist map by the high-quality offer of sustainable casino tourism.*

Slovenia can accomplish the given vision only by ensuring economic, ecological and socio-cultural sustainability. Economic benefits of casino tourism development in Slovenia would easily be noticeable, however, care must be taken about negative socio-cultural effects, as well as ecological effects as studied by Greenwood and Dwyer (2017); Nickerson (1995); Back and Bowen (2009); Wan (2011, 2012); Perdue et al. (1995); Lee and Back (2003); Cho (2002); Long (2006); Mallach (2010); McCartney (2015) and But and Ap (2017). By establishing strong mechanisms, development of casino tourism can be monitored, controlled, and adjusted if needed. Casino tourism is an excellent opportunity for revitalization some part of Slovenia and can be supplement of ski tourism and nature-based tourism, the casino tourism can develop as well.

However, it is clear that without a significant marketing effort, Slovenia as a casino destination will not sell itself. Defining marketing strategy under the strategy of casino tourism development is vital for revival of this type of tourism. Precisely defining sales policy represents a prerequisite for casino tourism development. Cooperation of casino

hotels with specialized tourist agencies and travel organizers abroad is crucial in order to ensure high rates of hotel occupancy and high revenues from casinos. It is necessary to set it up the complete casino tourism system. Without the support of state departments such we cannot expect better results than the current casino tourism. Of course, Internet gambling should not be ignored either. In Slovenia there is still a possibility for its development.

6 Conclusions and suggestions for future research

Strategic planning of the Special Interest tourism is necessary for all tourist destinations wishing to be sustainable for a longer period, as is the case with Slovenia. Casino tourism is becoming an increasingly popular form of tourism day by day, carrying a number of positive and negative effects. As such it is both a great opportunity and a danger to the development of tourism in Slovenia. In order for the casino tourism in Slovenia to be treated as an opportunity for development, there is a need for strong management that will base its business on the principles of sustainability and social responsibility.

Precise definition of a casino business policy and ethics is essential, as well as determining the social costs of casino tourism in Slovenia. Along with adequate strategic and marketing planning, it is also vital to determine a destination's carrying capacity (economic, socio-cultural, ecological, moral, and psychological) from the aspect of casino tourism. On the other hand, strong marketing management is needed, with strong promotion and cooperation at all levels and between all tourist system elements. Existing hotels that contain casinos must also urgently work on networking and establishing good cooperation with specialized travel agents. Social responsibility issues must be observed and studied, too.

The purpose of this article has been to expose the gambling situation in Slovenia. Based on a historical perspective, we reviewed the evolution in last 16 years and forecasts by year 2027. Since 2010 the regulation of gaming in Slovenia has been a milestone in the politics to promote responsible gaming even though there still is a long way to go for it. Although the gaming sector has suffered a significant recession in the last few years owing to the severe economic situation present throughout Europe, especially in Italy, the monetary expenditure in gaming has risen significantly.

The main research question is *How important is gaming for Slovenia and what proportion is gambling revenue in national GDP, government expenditure and in employment*? Gambling is not a strategic industry for Slovenia. It is more alarming, however, that it falls according to all of the indicators. Does the decrease in gambling revenues in Slovenia has its grounds only in global economic crisis or do we need to look for the causes of the decline in the uncompetitive casino offer? As we can see - only Slovenia, when compared to the neighbouring countries (Austria, Italy, Croatia), records a decline in gambling revenues after 2008 (Raspor et al., 2018). After this year there were no significant investments in Slovenian casinos. There has also been a delay in the

introduction of online casino offers. Online gambling is present on the global market in many ways which had already been overtaken prime roll of land-based casino. Most people today prefer the comfort of making wagers from their home, and punters can find nearly every kind of gambling from internet casinos to online lotteries (Oldroyd, 2017). Growth will continue to lag behind with growth on a global scale. Even in the most optimistic scenario in 2027, the nominal revenues of 2008 will not be reached.

Experts such as Nich Moore predicting that the internet casino will replace the real-world one, for all but the uber-rich, is as inevitable as the replacement of the horse by the car. So, living in the past has never been a particularly successful strategy in business, and whilst these fat, greedy old men are rich enough to delude themselves they can make time stand still, their machinations are just the last dying breath of an industry that has become as outmoded, redundant and moribund as a typewriter or cassette player. Moore says that one day very soon the only real world casinos will be museum attractions, the subject of documentaries on the history channel alongside the Third Reich and the Pyramids, just another unnecessary encumbrance thrown off by the progress of humankind (Moore, 2015).

Our findings open up the possibility of further research on this topic and represent the basic starting point for the development of strategic documentation for the development of casino tourism in Slovenia. On the other hand, the proposed models can be explored and used for analysis and forecast of casino tourism in other economies. As we have not addressed the ecological and socio-cultural effects of casino tourism at the destination in this paper, we suggest that our results are annexed with the analysis of the mentioned effects. While we have pointed out the main disadvantages of the development of casino tourism in Slovenia, the social and environmental costs must be precisely determined.

In the end, a closer look at the connection between the casino tourism and the event tourism can be further examined in Slovenia, as well as the surrounding regions.

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5   An Approach to Dark Tourism Development in Slovenia

Tanja Ostrman Renault* | Dubravka Kalin**

Abstract: *One of the most contested tourism terms of the 21st century is "dark tourism", especially by tourism suppliers and providers of services although it can generate important sums of income. The present paper showcases eight different dark tourism suppliers in its attempt to shed some light on the current situation in Slovenia as to the use of the term "dark tourism". The majority of our interviewees showed contempt and aversion towards the suggested term. To our knowledge, no research has been done so far in Slovenia that would consider suppliers from different tourism branches to find out how they perceive the term dark tourism, if they use it and why (not). The limitations of this paper will hopefully pave the way for future holistic research of the phenomenon.*

Keywords: *dark tourism, income, Slovenian suppliers*

Poskus študije razvoja temačnega turizma v Sloveniji

Povzetek: *Eden izmed najbolj izpodbijanih poimenovanj v turizmu 21. stoletja je »temačni turizem«, katerega se otepajo predvsem ponudniki turističnih storitev in produktov, kljub temu, da ustvarja prihodek. Pričujoči članek, ki zajema osem različnih ponudnikov temačnega turizma, želi vsaj delno prikazati trenutno situacijo v Sloveniji glede uporabe izraza »temačni turizem«. Večina vprašanih je izrazila prezir in odpor do tega poimenovanja. Po našem vedenju, v Sloveniji še ni bilo narejene nobene študije, ki bi zajela različne ponudnike, da bi se ugotovilo, kako le-ti pojmujejo izraz temačni turizem, če ga uporabljajo in zakaj (ne). Omejitve članka bodo morda tlakovale pot bodočim celovitim raziskavam tega fenomena.*

Ključne besede**: *temačni turizem, prihodek, slovenski ponudniki*

1   Introduction

Tourism has been now for a while one of the most booming and rapidly developing industries in the world. According to UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organisation), tourism is the world's third largest export category generating more than 1.3 billion USD in 2017 of total tourism receipts and more than 1.3 million international tourist arrivals (UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2018).

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According to the same source, in 2017, Slovenia recorded 3,586 thousand arrivals (international tourists' arrivals at collective tourism establishments) and 2,750 million USD of international tourism receipts. That makes 0.5% of total share in the tourism industry.

Since always, people have been travelling for different reasons. At the beginning, travelling was mostly, if not only, for elites. During centuries, travelling had become a more "democratic" industrial branch accessible to different classes of people, and nowadays we talk about "mass tourism" (Urry and Larsen, 2011); nevertheless, Singh (2004) argues that the changing world has brought along alternative or special interest forms of tourism which (in)directly entailed the creation of some new tourism branches. Although dark tourism is not something recent, for people would travel to see gladiatorial games in Rome, attend public executions during the Middle Ages (Stone and Sharpley, 2008), and visit a morgue in Paris in the 19th century (MacCannell, 1999), the academic systematic research of this particular tourism branch started as late as in the 90s of the 20th century, when the term "dark tourism" was coined by Fowley and Lennon (1996). Some researchers claim that this new type of tourism has been generating an important amount of income (Stone, 2005; Gosar, Koderman and Rodela, 2015; Kužnik, 2015), and therefore, it seems only natural for the tourism industry in Slovenia to follow in this wake.

On the other hand, tourism industry in Slovenia does not seem to embrace this recent branch of tourism, or at least it limits itself mostly to the first and, to a lesser extent, second world wars. Thus, the first international workshop in Slovenia dedicated to dark tourism was held by the Faculty of Tourism Studies – TURISTICA in Portorož in 2014, and a scientific monograph with the proceedings of this workshop was published in 2015, entitled Dark Tourism: Post-WWI Destinations of Human Tragedies and Opportunities for Tourism Development (Gosar, Koderman, Rodela, 2015). Gosar (2015) mainly outlined the theoretical concept and various definitions by citing some of the most famous examples throughout the world among which he distinguished WWII memorials and sites of heroic battles having been the focus of organised tours in former Yugoslavia. Klemenčič and Koderman (2015) put emphasis on the Isonzo / Soča front trying to enumerate its potentials for tourism development in the region. Nečak (2015) described the Rupnik Defence Line from the historical point of view while making obvious hints as to its potentials to become a dark tourist attraction. The same proceedings feature other Slovenian researchers and professionals, such as Likar and Klavora (2015), both dealing with the Walk of Peace project which was to become a tourist product along the Isonzo front; they strictly spoke of "historical" tourism thus refusing the definition of "dark". Sustainable dark tourism centred around the remnants of WWI was discussed by Jere Jakulin and Golob (2015).

In his original scientific paper, Šuligoj (2016, 260) focuses on warfare tourism, namely on the homeland war in Croatia, as one of "the most recognisable single category of tourist attractions". In 2017, Šuligoj delves further into the subject of the warfare

tourism in Croatia and its potentials for (future) exploitation through empirical research carried out with young Croatian residents.

Quite recently, new tendencies or rather sub-categories within the dark tourism branch have emerged, such as Podoshen's dystopian dark tourism (Podoshen et al., 2015), Wright's (2016) apocalyptical human hunts foreseen for 2200, or his terror park (2018) questioning the future theme parks as being (the only) witnesses of the rapidity of process during which (current) horrors become subjects of entertainment. Or, as the author puts it: "How soon our (current) horrors will become a subject of entertainment?", to finally ask the main question: "How should death be encountered by future generations?" (2018).

1.1. Definition of dark tourism

Dark tourism broadly defines touristic visits to sites associated with death, (human) suffering, horror and anxiety, violence and disaster (Foley and Lennon, 1996; Seaton, 1999; Stone and Sharpley, 2008). Although this term has now somehow prevailed among the academia, it is still largely discussed by marketing and public relations agents who prefer the term "historic tourism"; according to some researchers of the Institute of Dark Tourism Research (iDTR), "dark tourism is a subcategory of the historic tourism" (Gosar, Koderman and Rodela, 2015). In Slovenia, Gosar, Koderman and Rodela (2015), identified various names for this sort of tourism, such as "dark", "macabre", "morbid", "grim", emphasising that the term "thanatourism" should (perhaps) only be used in relation to cemeteries.

Therefore, the first question dealt with in the present article is to find out how the term "dark tourism" is perceived by some Slovenian suppliers of services and products that fit in the definition of dark tourism above.

1.2. Motivations for visiting dark tourism sites

Death has been the core of human life since always, for it represents something intangible, incomprehensible and mystical, starting with the prehistoric humans, the Romans and the Middle Ages, to come to the contemporary society and modern man who "is aware of his mortality" and for this particular reason "(he) is a tragic being in the universe" (Kirn, 1986, 736).

This particular form of special interest tourism attracts tourists for different reasons, but the majority of authors would suggest the following (Garwood, 1996; Smith, 1996; Lennon and Foley, 2000; Miles, 2002; Ashworth and Hartmann, 2005; Baldwin and Sharpley, 2009):

- curiosity in terms of something unusual and unique, out of the ordinary;
- empathy in terms of identifying oneself with the victim(s);
- horror, being one of the main reasons for coming to such "dark" places, in terms of experiencing a special thrill;

- education, as the dark sites and places are often part of historical and cultural heritage and as such they are well-preserved and presented in order to educate, offer knowledge and understanding of past actions and deeds;
- nostalgia for the past;
- remembrance of the past without which human beings would lose their identity and which is the only category that helps past actions successfully pass through a sieve of value system (Timothy and Boyd, 2003), the very system that changes with time and space following the social changes;
- survivor's guilt experienced by those who have survived or have participated in a tragedy, and who return to the place of the tragedy (Driessen, 2018).

1.3. Typology of Dark Tourism

The present article addresses another important issue relating to the variety of dark tourism products supply. Based on the typology proposed by one of the few Slovenian academics dedicating their research to this topic (Kužnik, 2015), as well as on the research of some internationally renowned authors (Stone, 2006; Light, 2017), the typology proposed below is a simplified compilation of main categories bearing in mind the Slovenian market and its supply of dark tourism products while adding some world-wide known examples.

- cemeteries (Žale cemetery in Ljubljana; Pobrežje cemetery in Maribor; Roman necropolis in Šempeter in the Savinja valley; Père Lachaise cemetery in Paris),
- war and (famous) battlefields (Kolovrat; Waterloo),
- concentration camps (Ljubelj, Mauthausen; Auschwitz; Dachau),
- prison and penitentiaries (Stari pisker in Celje; prisons in Ptuj regional museum; Alcatraz Island in the San Francisco Bay; the Robben Island in Cape Town, South Africa),
- museums (Kobarid museum; Museum of hostages in Begunje; US Holocaust Memorial Musem in Washington DC; Musée de la Grande Guerre in Meaux, France),
- memorial sites and monuments commemorating WW I and WW II (Stranice pri Frankolovem; Battle of Dražgoše memorial; Russian chapel at Vršič; Teharje Memorial park; Javorca church; memorials of WWI in the Belgian town of Ypres),
- torture and witchcraft (Friderik's Tower at Celje castle; torture museum in Amsterdam),
- re-enactment (Agatha trail in Lenart; Passion Play in Škofja Loka; Roman games in Ptuj; Liberation of Primorska 1945 battle in Pivka Park of military history; Battle of Waterloo),
- hiking paths along the trails of war (marathon along the barbwire line of the occupied Ljubljana during WWII, Dražgoše – Trail of Cankar Batallion; American War trail in Laos).

In her work, Kužnik (2015) proposes a much more detailed typology, such as genocide tourism, nuclear and disaster tourism, slum, paranormal and accident tourism. In the present article, the typology is simplified and adapted to Slovenian market and supply.

The purpose of this article is to highlight some examples falling within the defined categories of the typology above in terms of number of visitors. The aim is to show how viable, or not, dark tourism products in Slovenia can be. The data were gathered directly at each particular institution via email communication.

Another issue the article addresses is the term "dark tourism" in itself, its popularity and familiarity. Three same questions were asked each institution by means of a pre-structured interview.

2 Methods

The present article focuses on the following dark tourism sites and products including short descriptions of each and reasons for their selection.

Cemeteries:
- Žale cemetery in Ljubljana as the largest and most varied cemetery in Slovenia in terms of architectural, horticultural and historical features, and the number of famous people buried there.
- Roman necropolis in Šempeter in the Savinja valley as the unique and most well-preserved Roman cemetery in Slovenia.

Battlefields:
- Trenches from WWI at Kolovrat, situated at the Isonzo front near Kobarid, constitute the best-preserved theatre of the famous 12th battle on the Isonzo front. The Caporetto or Kobarid battle, as it is also known, inspired Ernest Hemingway to write *A Farewell to Arms*.

Museum / WWI:
- Kobarid museum entirely dedicated to WWI and in particular to the Isonzo front, holder of 1993 Council of Europe Museum Prize.

Memorial / WWII:
- Stranice pri Frankolovem where 100 hostages, Slovenian nationals imprisoned for their anti-fascist activities, were hung on trees bordering the main road; this horrible deed is still considered the most atrocious crime committed by the gestapo during WWII on the territory of modern Slovenia.

Prison/penitentiary:
- Stari pisker Celje, now a correctional institution for young, was a prison for women before WWII; during the last war, members of the national resistance were imprisoned there, tortured and executed; a part of the building has been preserved as it used to be during WWII.

Torture:
- Friderik's Tower at Celje castle as one of the latest dark tourism products with well restored torture devices.

Re-enactment:

• Roman games in Ptuj, where a historic event took place in 69 AD, staging battles between Roman legionaries and barbarians.

Although the last two examples can both be associated to the so-called *dartainment*, they are seen as separate categories regarding their accessibility; the torture devices exhibition can be visited at any time during opening hours, while Roman games take place once every year.

What guided us at the choice of these particular institutions was, first of all, their historical importance at national level; secondly, their uniqueness and quality of presentation; thirdly, notoriousness and general public accessibility.

An email was sent to the main contact address of each particular institution. The explicative email asked for the number of visitors during the past five years and to appoint a person who could answer a few questions concerning dark tourism. To this end, a pre-structured questionnaire was used in face-to-face interviews; one interview was carried out over the phone, and one interviewee preferred to send the answers via email. All interviews are available in Slovene only, while parts of them were translated for the purpose of the present article by the authors.

3 Results

Regarding the first question, as to the number of visitors, only four answers could be used in a table, as seen below. All selected institutions were contacted via email and asked to provide the number of visitors for the past five years.

Table 1: Number of visitors at different dark tourism sites in Slovenia.

Year	Kobarid museum	Kolovrat	Žale	Stari pisker
2013	46,331	16,800		1,205
2014	61,544	21,500	791	1,409
2015	64,781	24,402	461	1,092
2016	53,750	26,074	729	1,658
2017	63,963	33,321	507	1,250
2018			434[*]	

[*]the figure represents only the first six months of 2018.
Source: own.

Although the figures are rather eloquent concerning the fluctuation in number of visitors, it has to be specified that half of the institutions chosen for this particular research were not able to provide any relevant data mainly due to the fact that it is impossible to separate tourists paying the entrance fee for just one particular exhibition room and not the rest of the site, as it is the case of Friderik's tower and torture devices, and is therefore impossible to determine how many tourists are attracted to the Celje castle by this particular tower and would not have come otherwise.

A slightly different situation is at Stranice pri Frankolovem, where the museum is opened only on certain days of commemoration and by prior appointment. Visitors are not counted, not even estimated, as there is no entrance fee.

The same is true for the re-enactment of Roman games where participants are assessed, but not the visitors.

The guide through the Roman necropolis could not provide any relevant figures of visitors either, only a rough estimation of 7,500 to 8,000 visitors per year of which 65% are groups of Slovenian school children.

The only site experiencing a continuous growth is Kolovrat battlefield and its product The Walk of Peace. The Walk is also part of a European project with international partners which undoubtedly helps promote the site. Moreover, this product is perfectly encompassed in the tourist supply of the entire Soča valley region and is viewed from different perspective: as an outdoor activity for nature lovers, hikers, cultural and history fans.

For the Kobarid museum, the outstanding number of visitors in 2015 is due to the commemoration of 25 years of the museum, and 100 years of the 12th battle on the front – Kobarid/Caporetto battle in 2017. In the same vein, the number of visitors in 2014 corresponds to 100 years of the beginning of WWI.

The guided tours through the cemetery Žale show interesting figures with a very high number of visitors in the first year, 2014, and two years later, in 2016; other years show a steady growth.

Stari pisker or Old pot boasts a good number of visits, with the exception of 2015 when just a bit over 1,000 visitors came to see the memorial prison cell.

As for the interviews, they offer an interesting picture of how familiar the term "dark tourism" is in Slovenia. The institutions that were contacted appointed one person supposed to be able to answer the following questions: Have you heard about dark tourism? Does the site/product you manage meet the definition of dark tourism? Why (not)? What, in your opinion, is part of dark tourism?

Basically, no one likes the term "dark tourism" which is often associated with dark entertainment (*dartainment*) (Light, 2017), mass killing and witchcraft or torture.

The answers gathered clearly show certain repulsion towards the term "dark tourism" and none uses this term, at least not for their own product or service. Eventually, some associate dark tourism with dungeons, murders and crimes, but even so the majority still claim that dark tourism as such does not exist.

Table 2: Answers to three basic questions asked the appointed representative of each chosen institution/site.

QUESTIONS ANSWERS	Have you heard about Dark tourism?	Does the site/product you manage meet the definition of Dark tourism? Why (not)?	What, in your opinion, is part of Dark tourism?
Stari pisker (Old pot) INTERVIEWEE: director of the Museum of Recent History in Celje	YES	What we offer at Stari pisker resembles more to remembrance and commemoration than to dark tourism. Our aim is to raise awareness, but any hint of trivialisation and simplification is to be avoided. Museums have to address visitors' emotions but in a decent and emphatic way. We cannot afford to re-enact battles between the partisans and Nazis, what could be a negative part of dark tourism – trivialisation and commodity / commercialisation.	Guided tours of dungeons, on the path of Jack the Ripper, where, however, visitors always learn something as it is based on real historical facts, and this makes learning fun. When the reverence for the dead is forgotten, this is dark tourism. Or, for example, sites of mass killing, but here, I would use the term of "difficult (dissonant?) heritage".
Žale cemetery INTERVIEWEE: head of Ljubljana tourism guide services	PARTLY	I cannot tell you much about it, but definitely what we do is not dark tourism as we are not looking for any ghosts but conduct our tours in a classical way.	NOT GIVEN
Roman games INTERVIEWEE: head of the association Poetovio LXIX, the main organiser of Roman games	NO	Absolutely not, for our purpose is to revive life as it was 2,000 years ago. Even though we do stage gladiatorial fights, it is just a part of the whole four-day programme.	Historical but also current facts concerning murders, crime, conspiracy, torture. Sites could be concentration camps, death fields, dungeons, but only as a part of history, or a building.
Roman necropolis INTERVIEWEE: one of the tourist guides of the necropolis	NO	No, our monuments are so bright, beautiful and full of life and positive energy, that they definitely do not belong to this category.	Concentration camps, post-war killings (skulls), also killing of people during the war, Jack the Ripper, house of horrors, briefly everything that is scary.
Kobarid museum INTERVIEWEE: director of the museum	YES	No chance! This term should be eliminated, should disappear. It is part of the cultural heritage, it speaks about life of common soldiers, their creative work and socializing, it connects people.	If such term has to exist, then it could eventually comprise generals and all decision-makers whose bad planning sent to death hundreds of people.
Kolovrat battlefield INTERVIEWEE: responsible of the Walk of Peace Foundation	YES	Absolutely not. Our Walk of Peace takes people to walking trails across nature where everything is so much alive, while monuments encountered during the walk tell the history as it was.	Everything made by humans is part of cultural heritage. Those who use the term dark tourism must be "dark" in their minds, in their motifs why they visit dark places.
Friderik's tower-Celje castle	NOT GIVEN	NOT GIVEN	NOT GIVEN
Stranice pri Frankolovem INTERVIEWEE: director of the Museum of Recent History Celje	YES	According to the definition, this is definitely the site of dark tourism, as 100 Slovenians were killed in a horrible way.	Sites of mass killing, torture, shooting of hostages and the like.

Source: own.

4 Discussion

Altogether eight different sites and products were chosen, belonging to the category of dark tourism as per typology described above, to find out how curators and responsible persons of each site/product see the term dark tourism and if the studied service/product attract visitors. The number of visitors generating an important amount of income was also one of the purposes of the present research.

Based on the gathered answers it is impossible to determine whether the studied sites and products are financially viable or not. With the exception of Roman games product, all other sites and products included in the present research are financed by the state, the local community and, eventually, donations. The Kobarid museum represents a slightly different case, for it is managed by a non-profit company with a limited liability. However, the museum has been part of the official List of museums in Slovenia since 2011 meaning that the state does participate in its financing.

The question about how familiar the interviewees were with the term dark tourism surprised two of them, one knew about it partly, and one never responded. Nevertheless, these four as well as the four who had heard about dark tourism refused to use this term for the services or products their institutions provide. Only one answer concerning the hanging of 100 hostages consider the term dark tourism possible according to the definition of mass killing and human suffering. And still, it is only the action in itself and not the memorial erected to remember what happened. The majority associated dark tourism to dungeons, trails of notorious assassins, concentration camps, torture, something really "dark". Death, according to the majority of the interviewees, is part of life and therefore not dark. One suggested the term "gloomy", for "when one dies and closes the eyes it is all gloomy".

Moreover, through interviews it appeared that the notion of "dark" in itself was disturbing, for, as some of the interviewees pointed out, "one has to have a dark mind to visit dark places", and "in war, dark things concern generals and their bad planning, impossible strategies and their lagging behind the front while sending poor soldiers to die for somebody's stupid ideas". Others suggested that although the human history consists also of "dark" periods, such as medieval tortures, it is the science that is called upon to eradicate the term "dark tourism"; moreover, no tourism strategy in Slovenia addresses this particular issue.

Dark tourism can, according to one interviewee, be associated with sites where people truly suffered or were killed, but "we, as visitors, do not experience any emotion as our ancestors were never there".

A distinction was also made between "war" tourism and "political" tourism, as emerged in one interview, meaning that the Walk of Peace is a part of our history, while Goli otok in Croatia, a site of political prison from 1949 to 1989 during socialist Yugoslavia, could be promoted as a site of dark tourism. The same is true of Cambodia and its fields of death.

From the interviews it can be deduced that some speakers are not quite coherent, as they admit the term dark tourism to be used for sites "far beyond their control", while they cannot bear to use it for their proper sites and products (examples of Stari pisker and Goli otok). If the politics, as in this case, plays a determinant role as to the designation of a tourism product, it could be argued that wars, at least to some extent, are also political constructs and determined by the politics.

Another issue is also a chronological distance, for there are crimes, murders and tortures committed a long time ago, and not one living person can remember them for they appear only in books. This distant past seems more prone to fit into the dark tourism framework. Thus, for example, Roman battles fought centuries ago do not cause feelings of fear or anxiety, nor empathy and strong emotions, but their re-enactment provide fun, entertainment and to a certain extent offer an educational dimension.

The notion of chronological distance is arguable. Obviously, there are no witnesses of Napoleonic wars raging two centuries ago, while there are quite a few of WWII and even WWI. The question here arises asking if there really is any difference between "wars". Can we just simply say that what is beyond the common memory of living beings is part of *dartainment*, and all the rest of dark tourism?

The definition of dark tourism, namely sites related to death, suffering and disaster, is not sufficient to convince the researched institutions to use this term. It can be suggested that this is due to the fact that this particular term in the Slovene language – *temačni* (dark) – is perceived as something gloomy and terrible and that in general people would never admit to manage such sites or propose such products. On the other hand, their perception of the term can equally be questioned, even more so as a few of them never heard about the term, some have, but the circumstances and what it implied is another question.

5   Conclusion

It seems rather obvious that before a consensus is reached as to what term should be used for this type of tourism in Slovenia, namely tourism proposing sites of death, suffering, war, killing and disasters, a lot of discussion among different interested parties will have to take place, as well as research studies of different kinds. Future research should systematically review category by category, as the present paper failed in providing some key findings probably because it tried to encompass different categories of the proposed typology. In addition, members of academia should thoroughly discuss the use of the term "dark tourism" in Slovenia within a broader context. Suppliers and providers of dark tourism will have to have their say, for it is only on a solid basis that this term will take root in the tourism industry. Once the consensus is reached, this special interest branch of tourism should be entered in the national tourism strategy.

Although tourism suppliers and providers of tourism services do not like the term dark tourism (Stone and Nazarli, 2018), this expression has been admitted by the academia in general. Unarguably the most contemporary prominent authority in this field, Philip Stone (2018) offers a thesis that "there is no such thing as dark tourism, or at least, there is no universally accepted definition of what dark tourism actually is or entails"; and again: "Dark tourism as a term may exist within academic imagination and signifies death-related heritage attractions."

With this in mind, it can be concluded that a lot of water will have to flow under the bridge before a consensus of a definition and its usage will be reached, and thereby the apparition of new products and services with a distinctive denomination. Only systematic research in future can obtain such results.

The almost hostile attitude encountered during certain interviews and a categoric denial of the term dark tourism logically lead to think that either the proposed term sounds too harsh in the Slovene language or that the national providers of what could be part of a global dark tourism supply are reason-proof to envisage, at the least, the term.

The present paper is, to our knowledge, the first in Slovenia to explore and study the use and popularity of the term dark tourism with national suppliers of various tourist attractions, commodities and services. Although the study is rather limited exposing only eight different tourism suppliers, it will, hopefully, incite further holistic research of this particular touristic phenomenon.

The present paper genuinely unveils the fact that at least certain Slovenian suppliers refuse the term dark tourism; at the same time, this is also the limitation of this study. In future, each category will have to be researched separately if there is to obtain any valuable data. For the topic, nevertheless, is of the utmost importance, at least internationally-wise.

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6 Innovative Approaches to Management of Public Spaces: The Potential of Citizen Participation in the Context of Smart Cities

Andrej Žižek* | Kaja Pogačar**

Abstract: *The paper focuses on the innovative approaches to the management of public spaces within the smart cities' context. Public spaces are undergoing a visible and non-visible transformation during the beginning of the 21st Century, becoming spaces of control and regulation, instead of being co-created by citizens and planned for the human scale. The paper provides an overview of approaches that could serve citizens and allow them to become equal partners in the development of smart and sustainable living places. It also introduces technologies that could be appropriated by communities and not vice versa. The results of the research show a growing number of approaches available for the participatory engagement of citizens and high level of technological appropriation by civil initiatives and community driven projects in public spaces.*

Keywords: *smart city, participation, management, public space, open data, ICT*

Inovativni pristopi k upravljanju javnih prostorov: potencial sodelovanja državljanov v kontekstu pametnih mest

Povzetek: *Prispevek se osredotoča na inovativne pristope k upravljanju javnih prostorov v kontekstu pametnih mest. Javni prostori so v začetku 21. stoletja v vidnem in nevidnem preoblikovanju in postajajo prostori nadzora in regulacije, namesto da bi jih soustvarjali državljani in načrtovali za človeško raven. Prispevek ponuja pregled pristopov, ki bi lahko služili državljanom in jim omogočili, da postanejo enakovredni partnerji pri razvoju pametnih in trajnostnih življenjskih prostorov. Prav tako uvaja tehnologije, ki bi bile primerne za skupnosti in ne obratno. Rezultati raziskave kažejo na vedno večje število razpoložljivih pristopov za participativno vključevanje državljanov in visoko stopnjo tehnoloških sredstev s civilnimi pobudami in projekti, ki jih vodijo skupnosti na javnih površinah.*

Ključne besede: *pametno mesto, sodelovanje, upravljanje, javni proctor, odprti podatki, IKT*

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1 Introduction

Public spaces are complex and essential components of any great city that bring people together to socialize, work and recreate. They also help to build relationships, attract people into the city, trigger innovation and new ideas that fuel a city's economic growth (Phelps, 2015). As important as they are, public spaces are undergoing a visible and non-visible transformation during the beginning of the 21st Century. They are seemingly more and more becoming spaces of control, technocracy and regulation, as places where sensors, connected devices and applications are processing information about the space and about us people (Atkinson, 1998; Wiley, 2008; Kitchin, 2013; Bodnar, 2015). On the other hand, we would like public spaces to become quality living environments, planned for the human scale, co-created by citizens. To reach the before mentioned goals of sustainability and democratic inclusiveness under the umbrella of smart city's development we need to understand the forces behind the current transformation trends. They are not only related to the 'structural change' of public spaces under the influence of ICT but also to the growing importance of a citizen participation and citizen knowledge of new technologies (Berntzen and Johannessen, 2016; Granier and Kudo, 2016).

According to authors who have been researching public spaces, such as J. Jacobs (1961), J. Gehl (1976, 2013), W. H. Whyte (1980), D. Appleyard (1981) and others, the traditional public space[1] in a simplified perception consists of two structural layers – one is the 'physical space' (i.e. streets, alleys, parks, squares and buildings as part of the built environment) and the other is 'social space' (i.e. considered user related, such as people's behaviour, culture, activities they perform in public space). The interaction between both the physical and social layer/space is considered causal – the physical parameters influence the intensity, scale, mode of the social interaction, vice versa, social activities can shape the physical public space (creating the place identity, creating the need for certain infrastructure i.e. selling stands, benches…). Accordingly, "the quality of open urban spaces is directly related to their social, psychological and cultural dimensions i.e. social life and activities that take place there" (Jukić et al., 2018). Finally, Hillier describes the phenomenon 'the social logic of space' (1984) and Lefebvre claims "the space is a product of social interaction" (Stanek, 2011). However, applying this logic to the Smart City context, we fail to explain the new complexity. Smart cities are cities which use ICT to "enhance quality and performance of urban services, to reduce costs and resource consumption, and to engage more effectively and actively with its citizens" (Garber, 2015). These related, in a simplified model of public space in Smart Cities a new layer is added, representing 'digital space' (Foth, 2017). The "physical public space is transforming into a digital data driven public space, which encompasses a digital layer that contains a multitude of sensor and human generated data and where decisions are based on data" (Haase, 2017). Within the public space in a smart city,

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[1]   Traditional public space is referred to ones before the ICT.

residents, devices, and objects are all connected and they all exchange information. Foth (2017) speaks of human-computer interaction[2] (HCI).

Within this new reality, we need to form a question as to how the management of public spaces in smart cities can be improved to meet the citizens' needs and consequently how are citizens and citizen initiatives involved in this process? In the initial stages of Smart City implementation, the primary added value for urban management and for citizens is the optimization of urban processes. It has been shown that this can be achieved effectively as optimization leads to reduction of cost and time for all stakeholders. It also increases sustainability of cities. But based on this approach it can be argued that Smart City concept is not a disruptive technology as the sole optimization is not enough to solve central challenges in cities today. In combination with other technological and social innovations such as circular economy, artificial intelligence or new civic initiatives presented in this paper, the positive effects on the cities can be importantly enhanced. In this regard, the extend of cooperation/participation with citizens and citizen initiatives is of central importance (Granier and Kudo, 2016).

In the literature, there are several potentials and benefits mentioned connected to the citizen's participation identified as "a mechanism to inform decision-makers, determining public preferences that play a part in decision outcomes, second, participation seeks to improve decisions by incorporating the 'local knowledge' of citizens into decision processes, but also to foster goals of social equity and justice" (Tenney and Sieber, 2016). Civic initiatives are thus often focusing on community building, placemaking and localized initiatives (Krašovec et al., 2017). As such they have a limited impact on a smart city as a complex whole. This however is not necessarily true for the future of civic participation and organization. Exposed drawbacks of citizen participation primarily relate to the notion that participatory approach is time and cost-intensive (Mueller et al., 2018) which is mainly true for traditional approaches to participation (initiatives meetings, public manifestations...). However, in times of rapid changes impacting urban environment and high-speed information, the traditional participatory processes might not be a suitable approach, especially considering the fact that management decisions could be data driven. This could be bridged by civic initiatives adopting ICT's, thus greatly enhancing interaction with citizens and improving management processes primarily focusing on enhancing public participation and citizen empowerment (Granier and Kudo, 2016). Unfortunately, according to Granier and Kudo it has been observed that "little research has focused on actual practices of citizen involvement in smart cities so far" (2016).

In this respect, the role and the capabilities of citizen initiatives must evolve; as already noted particular challenges demand changes in the way civil initiatives contribute to the process of urban development, generating new approaches to participation (Fig.1). Foth

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[2] The new layer consists of two sublayers: a physical digital framework (i.e. sensors, devices) but also virtual social space.

(Foth, 2017) describes the changing role of citizens connected to the different development stages of cities, whereas in Cities 1.0 – citizens are considered as 'Residents', in Cities 2.0 – 'Consumers', Cities 3.0 – 'Participants' and in Cities 4.0 – 'Co-creators'. By extending this definition to the development stages of newly evolved public participation we are stating that smart public participation can further be distinguished by the way citizens use contemporary information technologies, with their ability to exploit data and information as a powerful participatory tool. Stages such as 3.0 – in which participation and 4.0 - co-creation is pervasive, can be connected to ICT and are thus of high relevance for the development of Smart Cities.
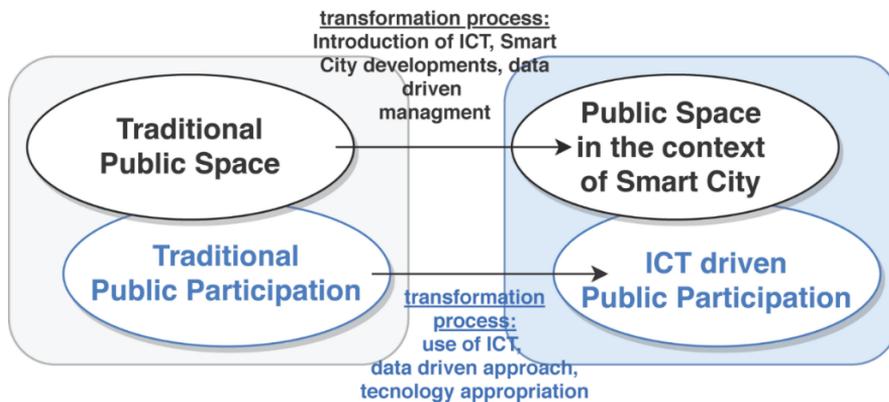
Figure 1: Schematic representation of transformation processes of traditional public space and public participation.
Source: authors

If citizen initiatives want to effectively participate in a smart city's development, the need for acquiring technological skills and knowledge to efficiently participate in new forms of data driven exchange may pose a barrier for them, as they must dedicate resources of time and money for required technological appropriation. Otherwise they could be limited to localized initiatives with a basic level of information exchange and could consequently fall behind in their ability to process real-time information. In the case of classic participation, the focus of citizen initiatives was set on providing information on the needs of communities. In the data driven cities and public space in the context of smart cities, this contribution is being understood as an ability to provide 'contextualized data'. This shift has many implications and cannot be adopted before specific other developments in the civic sphere have taken place. Berntzen and Karamagioli (2010) define basic prerequisites for developing such capabilities, can be summed up in three areas: infrastructure (portable or stationary hardware and access to the internet, special devices for people with impairments), education and training, and not lastly a legal framework to ensure transparency, freedom of expression, privacy protection and intellectual property ownership.

Finally, regarding the before mentioned transformation of public space, the new role of citizens and participation forms, the paper will not only focus on the approaches and technologies that could serve citizens and public initiatives to become equal partners in the development of smart and sustainable public spaces, but also on how technology can be appropriated by communities and not vice versa. The main purpose of this paper lies in highlighting the use of different bottom-up approaches for the management of public spaces enabling citizens to become involved in the smart cities' development. Subsequently we have formulated the research hypothesis: *to enable effective participation, public initiatives have to transform by appropriating knowledge on ICT and by developing capacity to gather, analyse and exploit data*. With this paper, we show that new ICT based approaches in public participation already exist and can be successfully used for development of a smart city's public spaces.

2 Method

The paper aims to focus on the public space transformation processes through the lens of Smart City development, presenting few selected but different approaches for citizen participation from literature and from experience. Methodologically, we are looking at the projects and civil initiatives that are using technology to enhance and enable bottom-up ideas to successfully impact development in contemporary data-driven cities. Moreover, we search for rather creative tools and technological innovations that enable bottom-up participation and go beyond common methods used in many cities in the past such as e-mail newsletters, online mail records, online document repositories, webcasts, polling, blogs, discussion forum, online petitions, social network platforms, participatory budgeting (Berntzen and Johannessen, 2016). Since the pool of tools can be divided into different criteria (i.e. who initiates the participation, who creates the tools, are the tools solely digital or combined with physical on-site presence, what theme do they address, etc.) we decided to structure them upon different modes of participation, influenced by and indirectly connected to the Arnstein's ladder of participation as defined in 1969. The original ladder classifies public participation based on oppositional structure, its purpose and its extent, but it is not suitable for explaining participation tendencies within the smart city context. Therefore, the adapted ladder is focusing on how data is being produced and processed by civic initiatives. Various principles of data production are observed: data utilisation, data contribution, data exploitation (data analysis). It is also possible to consider the quantity of data that an initiative is producing without implicating subjective qualitative factors and consequently to evaluate the potential impact of a particular civic initiative on the ICT driven participation model.

3 Results

The results of the research show a growing number of civil initiatives that are using ICT technologies to enhance the participatory engagement of citizens (i.e. participatory urbanism, citizens' design science, urban hackathons, web-based community

planning…). Based on the understanding of urban transformation processes and the transformation trends of civil initiatives we are introducing a framework for a modified participation ladder focusing on data production, direction of data flow and information exchange[3], considering the original intent for using ICT (why, where and how information technology will be used). Technological literacy is a prerequisite for all participation projects.

Analysed cases are grouped according to the principles of the adapted public participation ladder into four groups presented:

(1) *Information exchange:* civil initiatives are using information technologies and tools for basic information exchange (i.e. on events, policy…), using e-questionnaires, social networks...
(2) *Data utilization:* civil initiatives collect data and utilize it for their internal use and i.e. community development. There is no interest to further publishing or spreading the data.
(3) *Data contribution*: civil initiatives are capable to generate data that can be of some value for the management of public spaces. They participate in the co-management of public spaces.
(4) *Data exploitation:* civil initiatives are capable of analysing available data, that includes prior data collection and exploiting it for further causes. The ability to evaluate raw data demands a high level of technological appropriation, autonomy and indicates a high level of importance for data driven management of public spaces.

	Groups:	Use of ICT:	Exsisting Project Examples:	Contribution to Public Space Management:
low	**Information Exchange**	communication of scale	(1) Mapping Tool, (2) InstaBooth, (3) Open Source Wiki Strategy	citizen activation
high	**Data Utilisation**	using technology to empower community	(4) Wasted, (5) Hackathon	local ICT/data driven services
high	**Data Contribution**	generating data for broad application	(6) FixMyStreet, (7) OSM Fundation	data contribution
very high	**Data Exploatation**	R&D	(8) Smart Citizen Kit	knowledge creation

Technology Appropriation Level

Figure 2: Public participation framework based on use of ICT and technological appropriation.
Source: authors

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[3] Information is perceived as containing an answer to a question vs. data is a set of values with no direct semantic value.

3.1 Information exchange

There are different ways in how communities in general exchange information. For the management of public space in smart cities new interesting tools and possibilities have been developed that show great potential for further upgrades and research.

Mapping tool was developed by the initiative CiTyBee.dk[4] in collaboration with Mapcentia showing example of cities such as Copenhagen, New York and others being mapped by geotagged Twitter feeds of individual citizens expressing their opinion on certain topics (i.e. http://mapcentia.github.io/citybee_hedehusene/index.html#0). The maps show their #hashtags in different sizes according to how often the same #hashtag occurs. According its web-page "The link that shows the live situation in Manhattan is 'crowdsourced'. The CiTyBee mapping tool is 'curated' thus it shows stories that have been collected 'on the ground' (the 1:1 mapping) and inserted in the map. Based on the 'curated' content the crowdsourced map can take off and promote urban dialogue."

Figure 3: Representation of the Mapping tool.
Source: https://citybee.dk/

InstaBooth is a tool inspired by telephone booths that provides a portable structure that captures citizens' stories and opinions regarding future use and design of public space (Calwell and Foth, 2017). It is explained to be a hybrid (digital and physical) approach to situated community engagement. It uses tangible and hybrid interaction such as multi-touch screens and media façades to facilitate face-to-face and digitally mediated discussions. The project was conceived and run by QUT Design Lab, a non-government organisation from Brisbane, working with several partners.

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4   CiTyBee.dk is a web platform established to function as a so-called Community Tool Box (https://citybee.dk/).

Open source wiki-strategy (Pogačar and Žižek, 2016) was developed as a participatory platform for community based writing and editing of urban renewal strategy (for the case of the old city centre of Maribor), with content linked to physical urban spaces through Urban Tags, NFC enabled electronic markers with links to contextual content on the web, that could be edited via computer or smart-phone. The final strategy was compiled from public contributions and redacted by an open redaction board (Pogačar and Žižek, 2016). The project was conceived and run by Citilab Institute Maribor, a local NGO working with partners on projects of urban renewal and social innovation.

3.2 Data utilisation

The main characteristic of Data Utilisation is the purpose of internal development, i.e. community project development, with no particular interest or focus on data exchange or on the publication of raw data. It is excluding the publication of the project's impact and results, as these are often the motivator for progressive use of ICT in NGO's and other civic initiatives.

Wasted is a project connecting neighbourhoods in self-organized waste separation and recycling network. It is organized by the CITIES Foundation, a local NGO from Amsterdam (Holland) and was started by two Metropolitan Studies master students. The project uses custom QR code equipped waste bags that can be registered on connected digital web platform as they are being delivered to collection places. To award users, a coin in local virtual currency is transferred to users' accounts. In the process, a considerable amount of data is registered with no stated intent of using it for purposes outside the project or community, with no stated intent of using meta-data (photos, location, time-stamp...) for additional purpose such as urban network development, urban planning, urban management (Wastedlab, 2018).

In the case of Wasted the level of technological appropriation and capabilities of data use is considerably high, but it is being used for community development purpose and it is thus limited in the impact on the city as a whole.

Urban hackathons can generally be described as events where problems are solved in a limited time frame (i.e. 24-48 h), where intense participant collaboration is included, and the topic of the hackathon is usually predefined (Zapico et al. 2013). The goal was establishing new practices in participatory urbanism, with the special emphasis on: (a) inclusion of a broad circle of stakeholders, (b) establishing the principle of 'direct action', (c) incorporating innovative technology-based tools with the intention of generating a strategic support framework for urban renewal in the city of Maribor, which included a web based information platform and open source wiki page for participatory editing of content, (d) introduction of open data and data analytics to support the decision-making processes, (f) introduction of a moderated approach to brainstorming and open discussion (Pogačar and Žižek, 2016).

3.3 Data contribution

The main characteristic of the Data Contribution group is its capability to generate data that represents value for the management of public spaces. Data is often directly transferred from the civil initiative to the managing body, with intent to inform and incite action.

FixMyStreet is a project that collects information on traffic infrastructure problems using community participation to post information and photos on a web platform directly or by using mobile application. The project was developed and is run by the MySociety platform, a part of the UK Citizens Online Democracy charity NGO from Wales, England. The project is not limited to a particular location and can be easily adopted by cities and is being adopted in over 10 countries worldwide. The project includes a customized interface for the integration in urban management frameworks or for use by local city-council information systems for smooth, end-to-end reporting and data exchange (Baykurt, 2011).

Similar to the Wasted project, the level of technological appropriation and capabilities of data use are considerably high, but different than Wasted, the aim of data collection is to redeploy information on the urban management level.

Open-Data initiatives are a central part of contemporary discourse on data collection, data accessibility, data ownership and a range of other related topics.[5] We can define open data-initiatives as the ones enabling access, and initiative dealing with use of open-data. Predominant parts of the initiatives are government and industry initiated. Benefits and limitations of open-data use have been studied in academia and are well understood (Molloy, 2011; Janssen et al., 2012).

OpenStreetMap Foundation is a UK-registered not-for-profit organization managing the world's largest open-data based and community driven mapping platform (OSM) using volunteered geographic information VGI, a widespread phenomenon in media and academia alike (Neis et al., 2014). OSM is providing a huge amount of spatial and georeferenced data for open, non-commercial use. The project includes web access to thematic maps as well as tools for the extraction of contextual data from its data-bases on the highest technological level, providing data for large number of mapping and special analytic projects in the public and government sphere.

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[5] The term 'open-data' means that data is accessible to anyone, is free to use, re-use or redistribute, subject at most to measures that preserve provenance and openness. Two main aspects are of central importance: (1) The data must be places in the public domain with minimal use restrictions, (2) The data must be technically open, which means it must be published in electronic formats that are machine readable and non-proprietary, to enable use of the data by using common and freely available software tools. The data must be publicly accessible on a public server without password protection. To enable users to find Open Data, a public index of the data should be provided.

3.4 Data exploatation

Smart Citizen Kit is a tool described as an open source technology for citizens' political participation in smarter cities (Garber, 2015) to measure environmental values such as NO2 and CO pollution, noise, light, humidity and temperature. 'Green watch project' distributed 200 similar environment kit devices to citizens of Paris to measure ozone and noise levels, and then shared the data through the mapping engine (Berntzen, Johannesse, 2016). The Smart Citizen Kit project was conceived and is run by Amsterdam Smart Citizens Lab of WAAG Society, Amsterdam, a local NGO working in the field of education, technological research, architecture and social innovation.
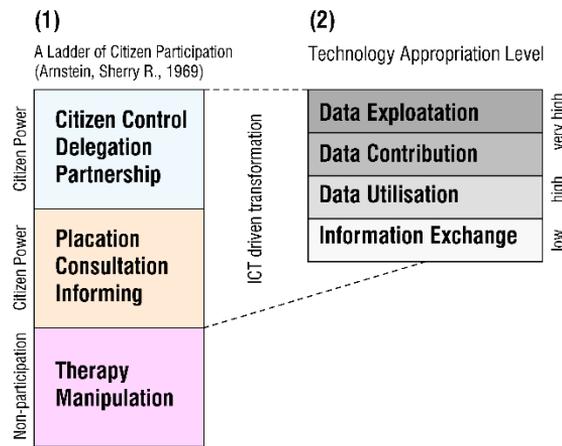
Figure 4: Adapted ladder of participation

Compared to the Arnstein's Ladder of participation where the category 'Informing' is considered a top-down endeavour, spreading information from the side of authorities (governments) toward the citizens, we can observe through presented cases/structure that citizens are becoming important actors and players as they are 'Informing' the governments in a bottom-up principle. The vice versa process of the participation in the form of data from the side of citizens can contribute to better management of public spaces.

4 Discussion

Responding to the question of how the management of public spaces in smart cities can be improved to meet citizens' needs, and above all how citizens and citizen initiatives are involved in the process, we acknowledge that it is no longer acceptable to consider citizens as passive participants of the urban development processes as this does not comply with the principles of smart communities and of urban sustainability. It is important to understand that citizens as participants in urban processes can be creators/producers and owners of valuable data and knowledge, that can also be used for better management of cities. Public initiatives are taking up presented challenges by generating innovative projects addressing urban issues and using public spaces in

smart cities. How each of the presented approaches can contribute to urban management with its data is presented in Figure 2.

We have demonstrated that not only expensive IoT networks run by corporations can generate data in contemporary public spaces. More and more public initiatives and participatory projects can gather valuable contextual data and it is a question of willingness on the side of governments and urban managers to facilitate effective data exchange. By providing the general categorisation of ICT driven public participation projects we have illuminated practices that stand out in their potential to take part in such an exchange, this being particularly true for the categories Data utilisation, Data contribution and Data exploitation. All projects in these categories distinguish themselves by a high level of technological expertise as well as a unique understanding of the central urban problems they are addressing.

The presented project strongly confirms the thesis that bottom-up public initiatives must find new ways to confront the challenges technological development is posing today, especially if such initiatives are partnering within the processes of ICT driven urban development.

The principle of knowledge appropriation of smart city technologies by the citizens also needs to be discussed. There is an inherent conflict between the introduction of surveillance technologies that are being added to public space intended to support contemporary mobility and information services and the public nature of space that is meant to be owned by the public or at least be managed in public interest. The potential misuse of technology can only be diverted by opening the data access and opening the technological solutions to a public that is capable of using this potential in its own interest.

As the citizens empower themselves with new tools and new technologies the question of formal regulation is becoming crucial. Crating artificial obstacles between the public and government data is counterproductive, as it limits development and research. Adequate legislative framework is not yet developed in a form that could support the self-organizing nature of the city as well as the potentials of co-governance. It also limits effective data exchange between public initiatives and urban management as possible legal challenges can arise.

5 Conclusion

Citizen participation should rightly be considered very important for sustainable development and the management of public spaces in the context of Smart Cities, though in a slightly different mode as we were used to in the past. Traditional approaches and tools to participation were limited to local impacts and were not being equipped to influence bigger structures. What are the chances that citizen participation in the future could transform into something valuable for the management of public spaces and a city in general? The presented examples and initiatives that have already

been transformed and have successfully mastered the aspect of a Smart City as the ICT and involve participatory elements show and help us understand the new dynamics of the participatory sphere by directly or indirectly supporting the management of the city. Analysed cases with different approaches to digital participation vary according to their data production and further use of the data for internal or external purposes. As such, public spaces will only be able to contain their public realm and democratic development when they will be co-created and co-managed by citizens.

The value of data public initiatives that is able to be gathered through its members, citizens and trough ICT participatory projects cannot be overestimated. If a choice is to be made between data being generated by public initiatives and data being generated by corporations, the clear preference should be on the side of partnering with public initiatives.

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7 Alternative Methods for Data Collection and Usage Analysis of Public Space Based on Data Mining in Social Networks and Urban Information Services

Andrej Žižek*

Abstract: *The Smart city concept is currently the most common way of connecting urban environment with the ICT and big data. As most of collected data is being used in applications and services offered by commercial IT corporations and start-ups, there is a growing need for data to be used to increase the quality of urban public space. This however is in the domain of cities themselves and obliges them to actively take part in data collection and analytics.*

The paper describes an alternative concept for the enrichment of existing spatial data sets by using georeferenced data that citizens are posting on social networks to provide better insight in the public space use patterns. For the presented research, data mined from Flickr social platform was combined with open GIS data to conduct spatial analysis of public spaces in two neighbouring cities Maribor and Graz. Possibilities for a more flexible and inexpensive way of spatial research and management of public spaces are subsequently discussed.

Keywords: *smart city, urban management, data mining, social networks, public spaces, Flickr, ICT, GIS*

Alternativne metode za zbiranje podatkov in analizo uporabe javnega prostora na podlagi podatkovnega rudarjenja v družbenih omrežjih in urbanih informacijskih storitvah

Povzetek: *Koncept pametnega mesta je trenutno najpogostejši način povezovanja mestnega okolja z IKT in velikimi podatki. Ker se večina zbranih podatkov uporablja v aplikacijah in storitvah, ki jih ponujajo komercialne informacijske družbe in zagonska podjetja, je vse večja potreba po uporabi podatkov za povečanje kakovosti mestnega javnega prostora. To pa je v domeni samih mest in jih zavezuje k aktivnemu sodelovanju pri zbiranju in analizi podatkov.*

V prispevku je opisan alternativni koncept za obogatitev obstoječih zbirk prostorskih podatkov z uporabo georeferencnih podatkov, ki jih državljani objavljajo na družbenih omrežjih, da bi zagotovili boljši vpogled v vzorce uporabe javnega prostora. Za predstavljeno raziskavo so bili podatki zbrani iz platforme Flickr, združeni z odprtimi podatki GIS za izvedbo prostorske analize javnih prostorov v dveh sosednjih mestih, Maribor in Gradec. Nato razpravljamo o možnostih za prožnejši in cenejši način prostorskih raziskav in upravljanja javnih prostorov.

Ključne besede: *pametno mesto, upravljanje mest, podatkovno rudarjenjem družbena omrežja, javne prostore, Flickr, IKT, GIS*

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1 Introduction

Smart Cities today are in possession and are partly publishing large data sets of georeferenced information. Additionally, many infrastructural projects are being developed and built that include the installation of IoT[1] devices in public spaces to help facilitate a range of management tasks and provide large amounts of spatiotemporal data. The idea being that such data can add an additional layer of information on top of existing data sets to enable more contextual use of data or in a different use-case to provide better understanding of processes that are happening in urban public spaces. I.e. they can indicate infrastructure maintenance states, help control traffic flow, register environmental pollution, etc. However, the implementation of IoT technology has its own challenges. The cost of such infrastructure is significant. Other challenges are related to the capacity of cities to efficiently process resulting big data and interpret it in a relevant and useful way (Rathore et al., 2016; Mehmood et al., 2017; Contin et al., 2018; Lau et al., 2018).

There are also political and legal challenges in the way IoTs are used and in the subsequent ownership of data they are gathering. This reflects on the concept of smart cities and data protection as a whole (Hollands, 2008). Existing legal frameworks for personal data protection and data ownership, i.e. GDPR, while trying to reassure the public, that collected data is being dealt with properly, pose considerable legal uncertainty for developers and managers of public spaces in smart cities (Edwards, 2016). Stated challenges are also posing obstacles in the implementation of IoT in public spaces. Thus, alternatives for data gathering in smart cities' public spaces are being considered.

As people today carry sensor equipped smart devices with them wherever they go and are using them for personal, commercial and other types of interactions, smart mobile phones can provide a possibility to enrich georeferenced data and help produce more contextual analysis of contemporary urban dynamics and related public spaces.

1.1 Transformation of public space

Public spaces in the development framework of smart cities are being transformed. The change is driven by the adoption of ICT technologies in the urban spaces as well as by general adoption of these technologies for personal social interactions. ICT is being introduced in public spaces through an already described sensor infrastructure (Atkinson, 1998). We can name the result of the transformation as a Smart Public Space (SPS). The fundamental structure of SPS when compared with traditional public spaces has changed. According to Gehl's (1976) understanding of traditional public space, it consists of two parts: physical space and social interactions. The quality of public space

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[1] Internet of Things is about installing sensors (RFID, IR, GPS, laser scanners, etc.) for everything, and connecting them to the internet through specific protocols for information exchange and communications, in order to achieve intelligent recognition, location, tracking, monitoring and management

is influencing the extent and quality of social interactions happening in observed place. Thus, influencing urban life and creating urban complexity. This general idea is broadly shared by scholars in the pre-smart age of critical theory, such as J. Jacobs (1961), W. H. Whyte (1980), D. Appleyard (1981) and others.

In the case of SPS this concept has been upgraded and effectively changed. Castells understands changes happening as semi structural changes, based on new globally connected places as the space of flows. Flows that are materialised in a form of high speed transports and of information flows (Castells, 2000). It can be understood that public space is expanding beyond its' physical manifestation in a way not easy to comprehend for its new complexity. The basis for the research in this paper is thus an understanding of SPS as a space of multiple realities and semi-perceptible layers transcending traditional definitions of space and time. Layered model of SPS is presented responding to described ICT driven functional and structural expansion of urban space.

1.2 Enrichment of existing urban data

Research on data enrichment by using data gathered from mobile phones (Dashdorj et al., 2013), using data on social platforms (Longueville and Smith, 2009; Humphreys, 2010; Alves et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2017), using call data from telecom service providers (Reades et al., 2007) is becoming a popular strategy for researchers focusing on public space. Particular interest is put on recognising citizen activities in public spaces. These are interesting as they can be related to commercial activities, or general social activities related to urban life. Data on activities in a public space is crucial for efficient management and for researchers to understand how a place is being utilized, what are citizens and visitors needs and how to improve existing or plan future infrastructures.

In this sense the analysis presented in this paper is not different, but it also relates to general configurational aspect of SPS. Noting that relationships in space, activities and data are to be understood as key to understanding the anatomy of transformed public space as well as enabling evaluation of public space attractiveness.

Evaluating public space can be related to several factors influencing social activities. Mehta proposes the factors are composed of inclusiveness, meaningful activities, comfort, safety and pleasurable (Mehta, 2014). Using these five dimensions a public space index (PSI) was developed for evaluation purposes. This public space index is designed to measure the quality of traditional public spaces such as streets, plazas, squares, and small urban parks. Evaluation of individual factors is done using observation and subjective ratings. Such an evaluation is limited in scope and demands concentrated work on various addressed topics.

Alternatively, a simplified evaluation of public space based on registered interactions with 'digital space' can be used to indicate successful spatial configurations. We can define spatial configurations based on existing spatial data represented by points of

interest (POI). Using this approach enriched spatial data can indicate quality of public spaces.

The general thesis of this paper is presented in Fig.1. We propose a model of transformed public space consisting of three layers. Layers L(p) and L(s) represent physical structures in public space and social interaction (events) taking place 'inside' observed area. An additional third layer is proposed representing digital manifestations of first two layers. The extent in which this representation describes the first two layers represents the level of transformation from classic public space to ICT driven public space – the SPS. We postulate that relations between the physical environment and social activities can also be found in the digital layer L(d), thus enabling more efficient and complex observations of the processes happening in SPS, leading to a better understanding of the existing urban situation and of general urban complexity.
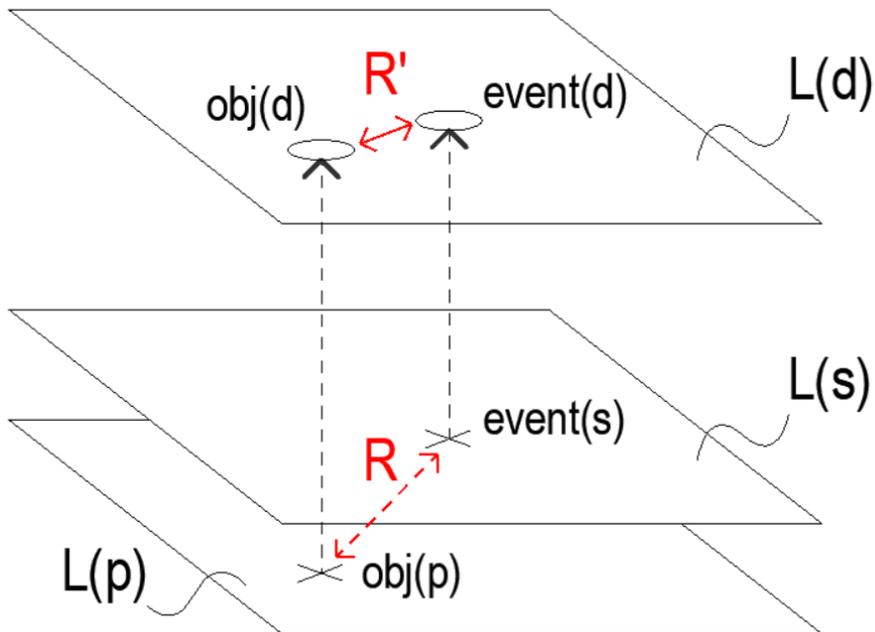
Figure 1: Layered representation of transformed public space with added digital layer and possible observable relations between objects and events.

2 Methods

2.1. Data collection and analysis

For the purpose of our research the Flickr social platform[2] was used to collect spatially referenced data. The Flickr platform enables users to store and share their photos. Meta

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[2]   Flickr is a photo sharing website and web services suite and an online community platform. It is considered to be an early example of a Web 2.0 application. (flickr.com)

data is extracted from these posts together with location data. The level of public associability is also indicated, thus only material with public access enabled is used. The Flicker platform provides an accessible application protocol interface (API) to enable extraction of data based on predefined location. A Python script was constructed to interact with Flickr the API and to store data in local data-base.

A typical data-point representing a Flickr post, among other information, contained the longitude and latitude of location of where the photo was taken. Flickr data-points represent user interactions with 'information space' while physically using public space.

For the representation of physical environment, points of interest (POI) were sourced through OpenStreetMap (OSM) for chosen locations.

Using QGis all data points representing interactions and representing physical environment were combined on a map for subsequent analysis of the existing situation.

Two locations were chosen to enable comparison and to represent two different development stages and characteristics of public space. The observed area was in the radius of 500 meters and covered a meaningful spatially diverse area containing public squares, pedestrian areas, bridges and other meaningful landmarks.

The first chosen location is in the historic centre of City of Maribor near the Main square (sln. Glavni trg). The second location is in the centre of City of Graz, in the vicinity of Main square (ger. Hauptplaz). According to preliminary tests a considerable difference in available data available for particular location was expected and later confirmed, thus representing different transformation stages in ICT influenced urban transformation process.

Based on measurable factors (number of interactions) provisional ranking of public spaces in observed locations was set up and compared with expected results and personal observations from chosen locations.

3 Results

3.1. Analysis of location 1

For Maribor's broader Main square area 2748 data-points were extracted from the Flickr social network (compared to 26499 data-points extracted for second location in Graz of same physical size). All data extracted had a public domain attribute adequately set by authors of posts, meaning that anyone can modify their photos, use it for commercial purposes without the need for contribution, and are completely *free* to be used for any legal purpose. The photos as such were not gathered. Only the meta data contained in the photos was extracted and saved. The timespan of all data-points gathered for Maribor is from January of 2006 to August 2018, however 90% of data is from year 2009 and later, showing the development progression in platform use in the area.

Typical received data-point was defined in JSON format. Example of such definition is as follows:

{"id": "42521041350", "owner": "130486903@N04", "title": "A very colourful idea", "description": "Perhaps not the most original idea but certainly a very colourful one.", "latitude": "46.558934", "longitude": "15.649884", "date": "2018-08-28 17:50:52", "ispublic": 1}

Such a standardized definition is readable for humans as well as machine-readable and can be efficiently used for analytical purposes. There are no qualitative values in presented definition, which we could directly use for GIS data enrichment. One way of defining qualitative 'weight' is to register frequency of interactions in observed public space.

Figure 2: image A shows data points as red dots / image B shows a heatmap compiled acording to the freqency of data-points for Location 1 in Maribor.

Figure 2 shows location of data-points on the city map. A heatmap was created using the frequency of data-points for observed locations. Structure of highlighted public spaces is clearly visible and corresponds to known layout of landmarks and attractions in the city's historic centre and its pedestrian zones.

From this preliminary analysis we are already able to recognise areas in the city centre with high exposure to related photographic activities. These obviously carry added promotional value and are defining the image of the city. It would be sensible to take special care in the maintenance and development of these spaces.

As important as such high impact places are, there are also places with conspicuously absent interactions. We can postulate that such places miss some crucial structural or event elements to be attractive or to enable expected interactions. A typical example for the Maribor area is shown in Figure 3, where red rectangle marks recently renovated public plaza[3]. In the analysis it is almost completely lacking activities. Such cases can be additionally studied in greater detail. I.e there are only 10 POIs located in this huge public space, almost half of them are commercial buildings, banks, administration offices. Such combination of functional programmes cannot generate enough public life

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[3]   From official Municipality of Maribor's web site: »Leon Štukelj's square is Maribor's newest public plaza open in 2011, measuring 9,000 square meters is the largest Slovenian urban square. It is becoming a venue for numerous public events...«

and activities. There are some other factors that play a role in this particular case outside the scope of this paper.

Figure 3: data-points and corresponding POIs on location 1.

Based on the heatmap spatially delimited evaluation areas were defined. In the case of Maribor its historic landmarks corresponded to the areas of interest, thus they were used for additional analysis of four locations. In Figure 3, chosen areas are marked with orange hexagons and carry original names from POI definition. For these spaces a simple index named 'location intensity index' (LIx) was calculated by multiplying the number of registered interactions from the Flickr platform in a chosen year (2018) with total number of POIs located in observed public space. The calculation formula used was:

$$LI_x = \frac{N_{event(d)}}{n!} \; * \; N_{obj(d)}$$

Where in the case of Maribor n!=100.

LIx index shows an approximation of amount of physical infrastructural objects such as landmarks, shops, restaurants, cafés, craft shops and amenities in an observed space coupled with a high number of digital social interactions. The higher value of the LIx index represents a higher potential for various kinds of activities and interactions to happen in public space, such as commerce or leisure activities. As the LIx value is normalized bit it cannot be used for comparison between different cities directly as various other factors are in play, making the values higher or lower, i.e. general use of particular social platform in observed city.

The calculated index value was subsequently stored in the definitions of POIs that are located in the area as *an LIx value,* thus adding qualitative data to otherwise descriptive definitions in the original database.

location intensity index (LIx) - Maribor

Medieval wall ruins	0,1
Sveti Florjan	3,4
Spomenik narodnoosvobodilnega boja	2,8
Kužno znamenje	11,0

Figure 4: index built from number of data-points and the number of POI's in public space for Location 1 – Maribor (2018).

In the Figure 4 we can see the final evaluation. The 'Kužno znamenje' monument is located in the middle of the main square and was expected to generate high index. It is also a public square with the highest number of cafes, restaurants and shops.

3.2. Analysis of Location 2

Compared to Maribor the location in Graz has by an order of magnitude a higher amount of data available. This is true for data on the Flickr platform and available POI definitions as well as for the quality of descriptions stored in their data-base. Figure 5 also shows the exponentially rising amount of data published on the social platform in last five years. This was not the case for Maribor, where the amount of data published on Flickr stayed more or less constant and has even slightly declined in recent two years. A substantially higher amount of data could enable spatiotemporal analyses with focus on single day events. Though such analysis caries different focus due to high variability of results and limited and localized meaning of data-points.

number of data-points
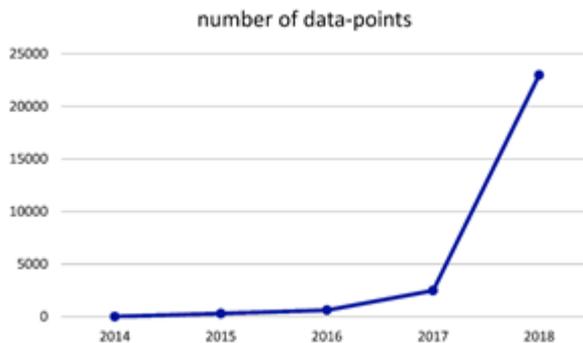
Figure 5: number of data-points from Flickr grouped according to its year of origin for the Location 2 - Graz.
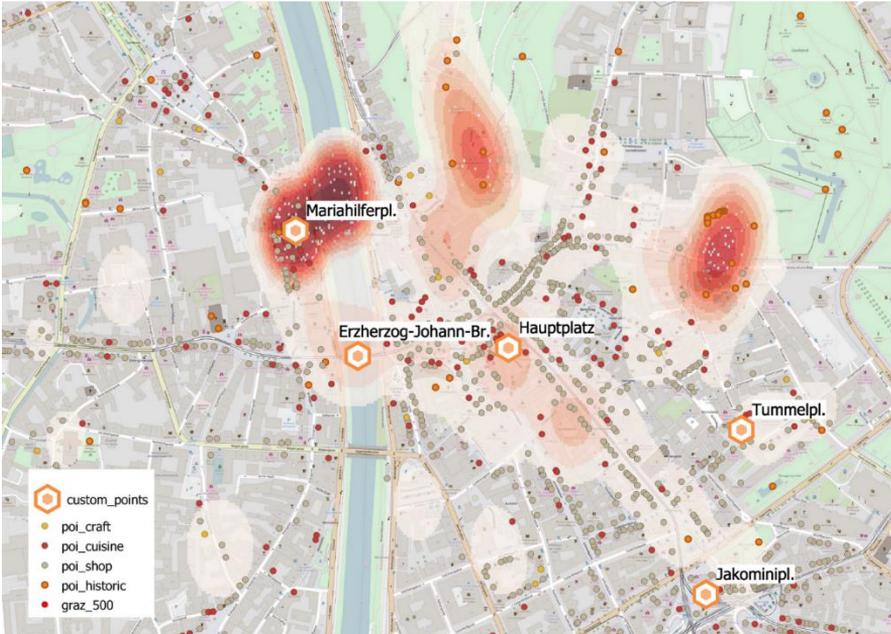
Figure 6: data-points and corresponding POIs on location 2.

In the case of Graz there is a strong deviation present in the case of Mariahilferplatz, as there is unusually high number of posts present on Flickr platform from this particular location. Additional analysis could provide some reasons for such result. We could with a reasonable certainty argue that an exceptional architectural landmark is the reason, as this public space is located in the vicinity of Kunsthaus Graz. It is an exceptional architectural landmark popular amongst visitors. Second reason could be linked to events concentrated in limited time periods. The analysis of data showed that almost all posts were submitted in summer months of July and August when the number of visitors to the city peaked. This is partly true for other locations as well. We can also understand that Jakominiplatz and Tumelplatz are not tourist hotspots. Posts were however not concentrated on dates of particular public events.
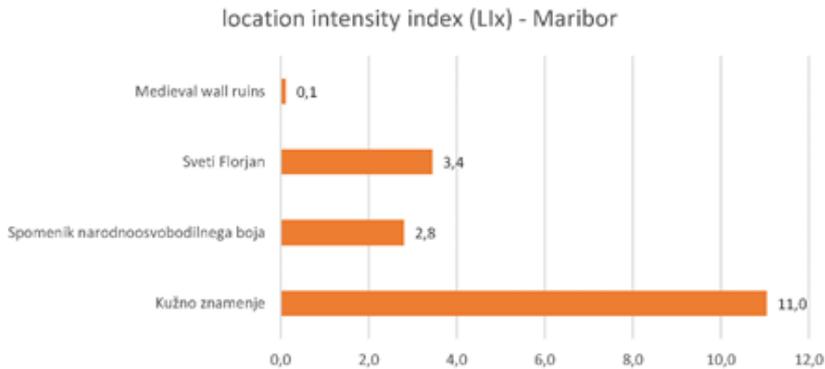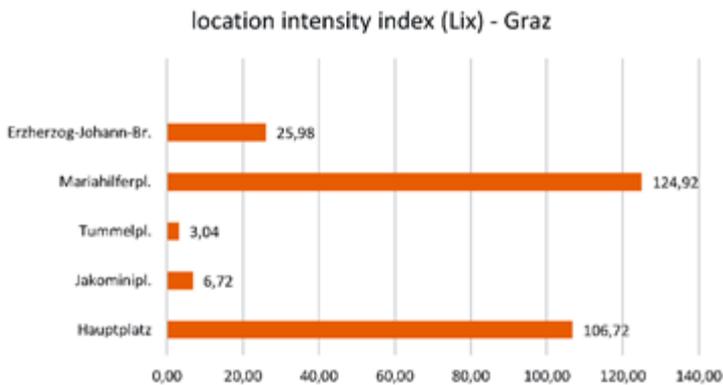

Figure 7: index built from number of data-points and the number of POI's in public space for location 2 – Graz (2018), the n! normalisation number was set to 1000.

In the index table the difference between Mariahilferplatz and Hauptplatz (Main square) is smaller as the Hauptplatz has a much higher number of shops, cafes and restaurants than the Mariahilferplatz. As results are aiming to show the potentials of a particular public space the results are meaningful. As for Tummelplatz and Jakominiplatz the value of the index is far lower, as these public squares are not visited by as many visitors. Though Jakominiplatz is an active transportation hub the number of posts from its location is considerably lower than expected.

Values for LIx as well as the number of posts per month of the year were also written back in the POI definition database for all observed locations thus expanding information available in *obj(d)* definitions.

Although in both cases only limited amount of data was available and could be used in the presented analysis, we can confirm that to large extent urban structures and social activities can be traced in the digital layer L(d). Using social platforms to mine data was a conscious decision resulting in some deficiencies we tried to minimize in their impact on the research results.

The general effectiveness of such an approach is considerable and can be easily compared to much more costly and time-consuming observational studies.

4   Conclusion

In today's smart cities, monitoring public space with IoT sensors appears to be a viable solution but it is not the only way for spatiotemporal data to be collected. By adding more sources of data published from web-based platforms and by sourcing open data from mobile phone applications, alternative approaches can achieve comparable effectiveness in highlighting user activities in public space as well as its structural relations and properties. IoT sourced data is rarely directly related to human activities. In special cases when IoT devices cater to specific needs of users in commercial, health and other sectors, they are generally focusing on narrow applications. Information on general citizen activities and interactions can be difficult to extract from IoT sourced big data.

The layered model of SPS and defined relations between physical structures and activities (events, services) form together the basis for spatial data-sets enrichment. Currently spatial data-set definitions are mostly oversimplified, lack information on interrelations between elements and do not include qualitative definitions. In the follow-up research an ontology of public space should be constructed (Montenegro, Beirão, and Duarte, 2011; Psyllidis *et al.*, 2015). In this way relations between elements can be defined in a systemic way, adding complexity to the representation of data and enabling discoveries in the knowledge and the study of smart public spaces. The expansion of the POI concept by adding relations defined in the ontology, adding spatiotemporal event data or by defining completely new classes of POI, is a very intriguing idea and is already being noted in some research papers.

Expanding data collection on other possible web-based sources could improve the results. It is also possible to connect data from IoT networks with web-mined data. Though this approach seems difficult as the primary intent for data-application is different and data is consequently being stored in different form.

By using web-mining methods it is possible to remotely analyze a large number of public spaces and to discover rules of a successful spatial and social configuration. By defining such rules, it will be possible to make a significant contribution to the development and management of public spaces in today's smart cities.

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8 The Design of Evidence Based Participative Parking Policy: A Case of Idrija

Aidan Cerar* | Urban Jeriha**

Abstract: *Restrictive parking policy is an important measure to reduce car use. As local inhabitants often oppose restrictions related to parking, implementation of restrictive parking policy is a political risk. The town of Idrija decided to design parking policy in a participative manner. In a meaningful participation process, communication is often grounded on data. In this case, a parking beat analysis was conducted using the method that supplies experts with data on parking patterns. The data was used to co-design scenarios and measures together with the local community. The policy plan was well accepted by the local community and decision makers. The case of Idrija highlights the potentials of data use for participative decision-making.*

Keywords**:** *parking policy, participation, parking beat analysis, data, mobility*

Načrtovanje participativne parkirne politike na podlagi dokazov: primer Idrije

Povzetek: *Restriktivna parkirna politika je pomemben ukrep za zmanjšanje uporabe avtomobilov. Ker lokalni prebivalci pogosto nasprotujejo omejitvam parkiranja, je izvajanje restriktivne parkirne politike politično tveganje. Mesto Idrija se je odločilo za oblikovanje parkirne politike na participativen način. V smiselnem procesu sodelovanja komuniciranje pogosto temelji na podatkih. V tem primeru je bila izvedena analiza parkirnih utripov z uporabo metode, ki strokovnjakom zagotavlja podatke o vzorcih parkiranja. Podatki so bili uporabljeni za sooblikovanje scenarijev in ukrepov skupaj z lokalno skupnostjo. Načrt politike so lokalna skupnost in nosilci odločanja dobro sprejeli. Primer Idrije izpostavlja potenciale uporabe podatkov za participativno odločanje.*

Ključne besede: *parkirna politika, participacija, analiza parkirnih utripov, podatki, mobilnost*

1 Introduction

Idrija, a municipality in western Slovenia with 12000 inhabitants,[1] started to design a new parking policy in autumn 2017. The new parking policy would be grounded on Sustainable Urban Mobility Plan (SUMP), which Idrija adopted in April the same year. Among other strategic goals listed in the SUMP two should be pointed out in relation to the new parking policy:

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[1]　　Municipality of Idrija has 12.382 inhabitants (https://www.idrija.si/vizitka) while the town of Idrija has about 6000 inhabitants (according to Wikipedia).

- Provide more public space accessible to everyone.
- Provide an appropriate number of parking places, restrict and control irregular parking.

In the process of SUMP preparation, interviews and survey pointed out that adopting a restrictive parking policy could be a challenge. The last time restrictions related to parking were implemented there was some opposition noted. According to interviews and a larger survey 63 % of the respondents claimed that it is important to establish new parking places in the city centre. On the other hand, only 18 % of the respondents thought it would be important to charge for parking in the city centre[2]. Based on that, it was expected that it might be difficult to propose restrictive parking policy – particularly if it involved parking fee and other limitations. Therefore, the process of preparation and implementation of the new parking policy presented a risk for local decision and policy makers. To minimize the risk, it was decided to design the new parking policy in a participative[3] manner – to open the process for local inhabitants and give them the chance to express their preferences in relation to aims and measures of the new parking policy. Within the participative process, several public debates were organised, interviews were conducted, and articles published. IPoP – Institute for spatial policies was invited to the consortium[4] designing the new parking policy. IPoP was in charge of public participation process and implementation of the research, partly: IPoP was in charge of parking beat analysis implementation.

2 Parking policy adoption risk

Everyone, one way or another deals with mobility and traffic at the daily basis. Because of that traffic and mobility related issues usually attract many people. Within traffic related topics, parking has a special place in terms of polarisation of opinions. People tend to react on questions related to parking places quite strongly. Donald Shoup claims that parking seems to take place in the most primitive part of human brain responsible for making snap judgements. This part of the brain, according to Shoup governs instinctive behaviour involved in aggression, territoriality and ritual display – issues that can all be related to parking (in Bliss, 2018). Therefore, it is not unusual that restrictive parking policy is a subject of heated discussions in local communities and / or media. Some local communities perceive restrictive parking policy as hostile towards drivers and the economy. Additionally, such parking policies have often been displayed in a

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[2] Survey conducted in the process of SUMP design (N = 270, non-probability sample).

[3] For this article, the definition of the term participation will not be discussed. The definition that participation is a communication process between residents and decision-makers is sufficient (Lavtar, 2007). However, it should be noted that in the case studied participation was a process in which decision makers, policy makers, local inhabitants and experts (planners) were involved.

[4] Kombinat architects were in charge of the consortium that involved prostoRož association, City Studio ltd., and IPoP.

negative manner by the media[5]. Therefore, parking policy adoption presents a political risk for decision makers, who might trigger opposition in case they decide for larger changes in local parking policy.

Particularly risky is the time before the implementation of parking policy. Data show that people oppose restrictive parking the most before the implementation. After the implementation, the positive attitude towards parking measures improves significantly. In the case of new parking management in Vienna, only 16 % of visitors had positive opinion on new measures before the implementation. After the implementation, 40 % of visitors expressed positive attitude (Rye et al., 2015). Similar pattern was noted among local inhabitants in the Viennese case: the positive attitude increased from 46 % (before the implementation) to 67 % (after the implementation). The attitude of the inhabitants can be improved if the use of money gathered by payable parking is well communicated. For example, if the revenue is spent to improve public space, sidewalks and squares or is invested in improvements of public transit (see the case of Old Pasadena in Bliss, 2018) the opposition can be diminished. Therefore, communication of new parking management is crucial, particularly before it is implemented. One way of communication is to use the *public relations* approach, which would emphasise the positive outcomes of new policy or measures. Another approach is the participative approach – to design new parking policy together with the people – local inhabitants, city users etc. The main difference between these two approaches is the openness of the process. PR is about promoting the result that has already been defined instead of initializing the process that would enable the design of the measure or policy (see Ogorelc, 1995). The crucial part of the participative approach is to define the end result during the process meaning that it is co-designed by the participants (Očkerl et al., 2017). Designing a parking policy together with the people therefore provides an opportunity to design policy in a manner that reflects the interests, preferences and fears of the people.

3 The role of parking policy in urban mobility management and the new parking paradigm

Restrictive parking policy is one of the crucial measures in relation to more sustainable mobility. Shoup (1997) researched commuting patterns of the USA and based on that claimed that employer-paid parking stimulates additional automobile commuting. If the employer used a simple measure to cash out commuting employers, which meant they had received cash in order not to use free parking supplied by the employer, the share of commuters who use a car decreased for 17 %, while the share of pedestrians, cyclists and ride sharing increased (ibid., 1997, 200). Similar findings were pointed out by Newson (Newson, 2002) and Litman (Litman, 2016) – that parking supply is likely to play a critical role in influencing travel patterns and that parking supply increases vehicle use

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[5]   Lately, the case of pay as you park tax scheme introduced in Nottingham, Reading and Bristol has been criticised in the media. The tax involves charging firms located in the city centre a special tax for free parking space provided to staff in order to reduce car traffic and congestions in the city centre.

and urban sprawl. On the other hand, there are quite some cases in which even though better public transport options have been offered or bicycle infrastructure improved the number of journeys made by car has not been reduced. The reason was often the availability of free parking.

In planning circles, the approach to parking changed significantly. Some authors, Litman for example, claim there is a paradigm shift – from old to new parking paradigm (2016, 7). The old paradigm was about supplying large amount of free parking at most destinations. The parking facilities should never be full and that the cost of parking should be incorporated into the cost of buildings. The old paradigm considered the parking problem as an indicator of inadequate parking supply. The aim of the new paradigm is to provide the optimal amount of parking places and the optimal price for parking. Too much supply is harmful, but so is too little. Those who use parking should be charged for it. Littman argues that old paradigm tends to resist change (2016, 7).

4   Parking policy of Idrija

In April 2017, the Municipality of Idrija adopted Sustainable Urban Mobility Plan[6] (SUMP). Among the main challenges noted in the SUMP, two are rather directly related to parking:

- Valuable city space occupied by parked cars could be used in a different manner.
    - As the centre of Idrija is protected by Unesco, it is quite inappropriate to have cars parked in the historic part of town on the streets and squares.
    - It is not unusual to park very close to the place that one travelled to in Idrija. It is called *door to door driving* locally.
- Public space is not safely accessible for everyone.
    - Parked cars present an obstacle for walking.

Another challenge was that there was almost no control of parking in Idrija meaning it was very unlikely that an individual would get a parking ticket in case of wrong parking. Although traffic wardens do operate in Idrija, they very rarely impose parking rules on local car drivers. Because of that there are specific locations in the city that are quite chaotic in terms of parked cars, which presents an obstacle for pedestrians, cyclists and other drivers. Pedestrians feel unsafe in these areas, was claimed in the workshops organised during SUMP preparation.

Based on the challenges several strategic goals were noted in the SUMP of Idrija. We will only point out the ones dealing with parking policy.

- Provide more public space accessible to everyone.
- Provide an appropriate number of parking places, restrict and control irregular parking.

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[6]   Document prepared by Ljubljana Urban Institute (LUZ, d.d.) and Regional Development Agency of Ljubljana Urban Region.

Picture 1: Parking in Idrija.
Source: IPoP

It was clear, that the new parking policy should be based on those two strategic goals. However, more data was needed to define the needs and potentials related to parking. As the first step, the consortium did the classic research related to parking policy design, meaning that demand (residents and workplaces) and supply (number of parking places) ware calculated. Then a survey was conducted on how people commute to work and where their journey starts. About 75 % of employees in Idrija have been commuting to work by car. As only 55 % of employees reside out of the district in which their employer is located, this was identified as a great potential to decrease the number of cars in the town.

5 Parking beat analysis

The larger survey conducted within the SUMP preparation process showed that 63 % of respondents think that the amount of parking places in the city centre should be increased. In some of the interviews conducted in the process of SUMP preparation, an opposite view point was expressed – that the amount of parking places was sufficient, but the drivers often parked illegally. In order to supply the municipality and local residents with reliable data, for Slovenia a rather new type of research was done – *the parking beat survey*. About 1300 parking places in the municipality of Idrija were selected for the survey according to their relevance for the new parking policy. These parking places were then observed on a selected day, from early morning (6 AM) to late evening (11.30 PM). Each observant had a defined route. The town of Idrija was divided into several parts and each observant was in charge of a few neighbouring parts. The route was structured in a way that each parking place was observed approximately every 90 minutes. Observers were supplied with material – maps designed for parking beat of Idrija specifically and tables for each parking area / street. There were two shifts – one team observed parking places of Idrija from 6AM to 2:30PM and the second from 2:30PM

to 11:30PM. After the observation the data was digitalised with Microsoft excel software. Charts and visual presentation material were produced. Calculations were automatized. The data was analysed by categorised parking patterns by three different urban populations: residents, commuters and visitors.

Residents were the drivers of cars that were parked on the specific parking place overnight. Commuters' cars were parked at the specific parking places for at least six hours between morning and evening. Visitors population included drivers of cars that were parked between morning and evening for maximum four hours. The users, whose behaviour fell in between, were grouped individually, based on the time of the day.

Firstly, the occupancy level for each parking area was analysed. The occupancy percentage was analysed for each observation timeframe – periodically for every 90 minutes. The perception of a lack of parking places was not backed by data. The average occupancy level was 61 %. Parking areas were the most occupied before noon – the occupancy level was 79 %. The lowest level of occupancy was in the night time – 41 %. The highest occupancy level was noted in the old town, where narrow streets limit the space. The highest occupancy level was 97 % of parking places being full of cars and that happened in the interval before noon. As the share of commuters presented 32 % of parked cars in the mentioned time interval, there was a potential to relocate commuters' parking on the fringe of the old town. Considering the fact, that commuters park for 8 hours and the suggested fringe parking area is only 5 minutes' walk away. In the *before noon* interval the fringe parking area had many parking places available.

Picture 2: Parking beat analysis – data gathering.
Source: IPoP

According to the parking beat survey, the conclusion was that the overall amount of parking places in Idrija is sufficient. In some areas the overall number of parking places could even be reduced as the area itself is never completely occupied – the share of

available places is significant. In two areas only, demand exceeds supply – in the old town and in the residential neighbourhood in Spodnja Idrija. In these two areas, changes in the parking regime were proposed. In the old town, mainly restrictions in terms of parking places reserved for residents only and short-term parking for visitors were suggested. Near the centre a larger parking area for long term parking is located, therefore it was suggested that commuters could be stimulated to park there. Overall, the number of parking places has not changed, which was cornerstone of the scenario for a new parking policy designed together with local inhabitants. However, the perception of the lack of parking was not underestimated as people ground their actions and opinions on their perceptions. Therefore, the main guideline of the participation process was to provide facts and data as a foundation for sound parking management measures.

6 Participation process

At the beginning of the process, the participation plan was designed. It involved all opportunities for participation, all communication activities and the timeline[7]. The participation plan involved:

- Three public debates.
- A questionnaire for larger employers.
- Several articles in local newspaper.

It could be argued that not enough different methods were used in the process but that has a reason. About a year before the parking policy preparation, SUMP was designed and adopted. Within SUMP, a larger survey, several public debates, and two sets of interviews were conducted. All the material from SUMP preparation was provided and some of the professionals involved in the parking policy preparation had also cooperated in SUMP design. It would be inappropriate to ask local inhabitants same questions that they had been answering about a year ago. After all they expect that their contribution is noted somewhere and available to professionals commissioned by the municipality. The residents legitimately expect that their participation outputs are not project-limited and go beyond projects and departments of municipality. Additionally, local inhabitants devote their free time to participate in such processes, which should be valued, and activities that are not meaningful should be avoided.

The concept of participation process was challenges – scenarios – measures. First, challenges were discussed – what presents a challenge or a problem for local inhabitants in terms of parking. Afterwards the scenarios were discussed. This was the crucial phase of the participation process. Local inhabitants had four different scenarios presented to them at the public debate. Every presented scenario contained aims and expectations. The scenarios were:

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[7] The participation plan was grounded on the manual named Z (Očkerl et al., 2017).

- *Creating new parking places.* The main aim was to make parking free and widely available which would take some of the public space. Main expectations were that the share of cars in modal split would increase while the share of walking and cycling would decrease.
- *Everything stays the same.* The main aim was not to change anything. The expectations were that it will still be difficult to find a parking place and probably the municipality would have to deal with parking management in couple of years.
- *Parking places located where there is space for them.* The aim was to preserve the same amount of parking places but develop a parking policy. The expectations were that short journeys made with cars will decrease, cycling and walking and improvement of public space will increase.
- *Attractive and vibrant Idrija.* The aim was to decrease the surface available for parking. The expectations were that the public spaces would become much more vibrant and that the number of pedestrians, cyclers and *flâneurs* would increase.

All scenarios were presented and discussed. The scenario *Parking places located where there is space for them* was selected by the inhabitants attending the debate as the most appropriate and scenario *Attractive and vibrant Idrija* as the second most appropriate. On the next public debate, the measures in line with the scenario were discussed. It was a deliberate decision to separate the discussion about aims and discussion about measures. When discussing measures too early in the process, it is challenging to explain each measure in terms of the long-term results, aims and expectations. On the other hand, when selecting a scenario first, each measure can afterwards be discussed in comparative manner – if it is in-line with selected scenario.

Picture 3: Parking beat analysis – Arkova street.
Source: IPoP.

Data gathered by the parking beat analysis had a tremendous impact on the discussion on scenarios and measures. Local inhabitants were supplied with data on every observed parking area. They could see the data about parking areas they use and other parking areas of the town. Data helped them understand who parks where and for how

long and what the occupation levels are. Therefore, their contribution to the selection of scenarios and measures was informed. They also understood the purpose of a specific measure and what the expectations of the parking policy.

By designing parking policy together with local inhabitants, the political risk was significantly diminished. The municipal council has voted for the parking policy adaptation unanimously.

7   Discussion

The participative process was one of the core aspects of the new parking policy for Idrija. As noted above, parking policy could be claimed as politically risky. People understand the whole context of particular policy much better, if they participate in it. The limitations are clearer, so is the legal framework (Bizjak, 2012). More importantly, other potential solutions are presented as well, and the local community understands what other possible solutions are and why some were selected and other not. However, the most important question when studying a case of participation is *power*. Meaningful participation is based on the precondition that part of the power of designing the solution is given to people[8]. People want to have influence on the matters and policies that define their daily life. People no longer take the solutions designed by experts for granted – they demand to participate in the decision-making process (Kos and Marega, 2002, 21; Ogorelc, 1995, 8).

It could be claimed that participative planning is slow, which is true – democracy has always been slower in terms of delivering decisions compared to autocracy, and participation is in the core of a democratic political system. Most of the political systems nowadays are a mixture of representative and direct democracy. In the case of Idrija there were minor delays because of participation process too, however quite some cases proved that avoiding participation can cause major delays. If the conflicts are not presented and dealt with in the participation process, they occur at the later stage, usually in a form of protest. Strong protests can block the project implementation (see Cerar, 2014). Therefore, the projects that have a potential of triggering a strong opposition need to be opened for participation in the earliest stage possible, thus the participants have a possibility to influence the end result, otherwise participation is meaningless (see Očkerl et al., 2017).

7.1 Smart cities and communities

Lately, the use of data and technology has often been promoted in urban development related topics. Particularly the use of big data has often been argued within the *smart city* notion – a symbol of a new kind of technology driven urban utopia (Kirby, Townsend

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[8]   Sharry Arnstein, a classic researcher of participation, divided different forms of participation by putting them on the different position on a ladder. It could be claimed that one of the main factors that determine the position is the share of power that is given to citizens (Arnstein, 1969). Similarly, could be claimed for participation ladder designed by Pretty (1995).

in Hollands, 2013). Although the definition of a smart city has often been argued as rather unclear, the critics have pointed out that the whole notion of smart city might be too focused on technology as a solution for social, economic and environmental urban challenges (Hollands, 2013). One of the definitions is that smart city uses ICT to enhance liveability, workability and sustainability, among other that includes challenges related to carbon emissions and global warming (Smart city council in Roy, 2016). Another definition points out that a smart city is a technical solution (tech. fix) to political and environmental issues (Gabrys in Buck, While, 2017, 503). That includes advanced analytics to help people make more intelligent decisions (Washburn in Buck, While, 2017). The concept of smart city is often promoted by corporations and suffers from a lack of democratic and participative decision-making. However, another aspect of a smart city is more people-centered. For example, small scale interventions of participatory initiatives that involve urban technologies for collaboratively solving urban problems – which de Lange and de Wall call social cities (Hollands, 2013). The idea is to use technology for realising progressive ideas instead of seeing the technology itself as progressive. Some authors argue the importance of the local case where key actors can meet face to face and exchange knowledge and undertake collective action (Karvonen, van Heur in Buck, While, 2017, 515).

It has been suggested by David Harvey: the use of new participatory urban technologies, greater inclusion and shift from corporations to communities in order to achieve a really smart urbanism (Harvey in Hollands, 2013, 63). Additionally, Harvey pointed out, that smart city discourse ignores how cities function politically and sociologically[6] and that smart city discourse does not contain enough space for democratic debate and people power (Harvey in Hollands, 2013, 73). Technology itself or sophisticated data gathering cannot solve traffic problems as they have a social, political and cultural dimension (Hollands, 2013).

8   Conclusion

The parking beat analysis is not a classic smart city technology feature. It is a rather low-tech solution as Microsoft excel was the software behind the analytics. However, there is room for improvement in terms of applying technology. The cost of data gathering could be diminished enormously by investing in proper technology. By incorporating sensors, the analysis could be conducted periodically – but that might not help the initial aim – developing parking policy in a participative manner that enables local inhabitants to influence, understand, and accept it as a relevant and meaningful policy that is expected to deliver predicted results. Particularly in the cities and societies in which the trust in institutions is relatively low, which has been claimed for Slovenia (see Kramberger, 2002; Makarovič, 2002). In such environments, it can be most helpful if the local inhabitants are supplied with data and the insights how the data was

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6   Similarly, has been argued by Kitchin (in Roy, 2016, 31).

gathered. If they can present their suggestions and ground them on gathered data, it positively affects the trust in the policy-making process.

Another thing is, that people poses quite some data and knowledge about their local environment and practices. After all, they experience, use, and produce the space at the level of everyday life. This is the knowledge that can help making better urban policies. They might supply researchers or planners with data that sensors cannot access, notice, or interpret.

Parking beat analysis was crucial in designing the new parking policy of Idrija. It supplied researchers and local inhabitants with reliable data on parking in the city. That has been used as a foundation for new parking policy that was designed in a participative manner. Local inhabitants themselves identified the problem: on one hand they were in favour of new parking places in the centre while on the other they were aware that most parking challenges come from the culture of parking right at the visited amenity. The data gathered by parking beat did not provide a direct solution but enabled planners, policy makers, decision makers, and local inhabitants to design the scenario and solution together.

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Menedžment v sociali in online izobraževanje

Management in Social Services and Online Education

9 E-learning in Higher Education and Intrinsic Motivation for E-learning

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Abstract: *E-Learning is a key activity in a knowledge network society. Higher education institutions create and disseminate knowledge and contribute decisively to citizens' lifelong learning. E-Learning helps students meet their educational needs via a wide spectrum of digital technologies; it allows them to construct their own knowledge by offering full access to didactic resources and teaching–learning methods, with no time and location limits. Motivation that initiates and sustains behaviour is one of the most significant components of learning in any environment, especially the level of intrinsic motivation triggers and sustains the interest of the distance education students when it comes to learning on their own in e-learning environments. The paper presents the most important results of the research carried out on a sample of students participating in e-learning. We were interested in factors that significantly contribute to students choosing e-learning and student's attitudes toward this type of learning. Further in the paper we present the results of the analysis of the correlation between different factors of intrinsic motivation with the development of competences and student performance in the e-learning process.*

Keywords: *e-learning, intrinsic motivation, higher education*

E-izobraževanje v visokem šolstvu in notranja motivacija študentov za e-izobraževanje

Povzetek: *E-izobraževanje je ključna aktivnost v današnji izobraževalni družbi. Visokošolske organizacije kreirajo in diseminirajo znanje in tako prispevajo k vseživljenjskemu učenju. E-izobraževanje pomaga študentom zadovoljiti izobraževalne potrebe s pomočjo različnih digitalnih tehnologij. Na ta način omogočajo, da si študenti sami gradijo znanje preko dostopa do različnih didaktičnih materialov in s pomočjo različnih metod učenja in poučevanja, brez časovnih ali geografskih omejitev. Motivacija, ki spodbuja določeno vedenje je pri tem najpomembnejši dejavnik učenja, še posebej notranja motivacija, ki spodbuja interes za vključitev v e-izobraževanje. V prispevku so predstavljeni najpomembnejši rezultati raziskave na vzorcu študentov E-študija. Zanimali so nas dejavniki, ki pomembno prispevajo k izbiri takega izobraževanja in stališča študentov do tovrstnega študija. Nadalje podajamo rezultate analize povezanosti različnih dejavnikov notranje motivacije z razvojem kompetenc in formalno uspešnostjo študentov v procesu e-učenja.*

Ključne besede: *e-izobraževanje, notranja motivacija, visokošolski sistem izobraževanja*

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1 Introduction

Learning is a part of our society and it is not limited to a specific environment, institution, individual or historical period. Since classical education, which was recently still up-to-date, education in the 20th century started involving the use of computers and internet connection. To this day technology has progressed to such a level that we can access a huge amount of information at the moment we need it, no matter where we are. It is only important that we have a computer or another high-tech device and internet connection available. E-learning has become a part of an educational infrastructure which defines the new boundaries in this sphere.

Educational sphere is adapting to information and communication technology advancement. Education institutions have over time discovered that the use of the internet can also help obtaining more effective information extraction and exchange at a global level. The way of life, which forces global integration, the continuous development of new products and professions, also requires education institutions to keep pace with all development novelties and to introduce them into their educational programs.

The advent of the internet made lecturers' work easier as they suddenly gained access to a large amount of historical and up-to-date data, as well as multimedia content for a more explicit display of certain content. Interactivity of lectures has improved, and they have become more interesting. On the other hand, the internet also helped students gain access to a large amount of information which they skilfully started using for their own benefit. Technology has become the primary communication tool, which offers a big amount of easily accessible information that students need for study work (Howard, Davies, 2009).

Higher education institutions have gained certain benefits through the emergence of online learning and study, such as cost reduction, inclusion in the global world, intense increase in the need for e-learning resulting in a greater number of students and higher incomes. On the other hand, they face higher and more aggressive global competition, the different needs of many individual users who want to tailor their studies individually according to their needs and desires. Therefore, higher education institutions must understand the potential of e-learning methods and strategies in conjunction with knowledge of individuals, their needs and expected learning outcomes. This requires the development of an appropriate e-tool and training lecturers and students to use this tool (platform) to develop the expected competencies. The advancement in e-learning offers new opportunities for learning and leads to major changes in pedagogical practice (Jia et al., 2011).

2 Definition of e-learning

Cidral et al. (2017) believe that e-learning in education represents the use of information technology to disseminate information and knowledge. This phenomenon is considered a paradigm of modern education. In the foreground, we have a new system of learning

environment that changes the established methods of teaching and learning with the help of mobile devices and wireless communication. Access to educational content and programs is possible through a computer, mobile devices (e.g., smartphones, tablets) which presents new challenges to education and changes conventional classical methods of knowledge transfer.

Furthermore, Hwang (2016) defines e-learning as an environment in which the user obtains contact with learning material (e.g., texts, tasks, exercises, etc.), classmates, instructors, lecturers through modern information technologies.

According to Kaplan and Haenlin (2016), a form of distance learning is that the students are not physically present in the same location. As such, any distance learning application can be categorized along two dimensions: number of participants (unlimited and limited) and time dependency (asynchronous and synchronous).

In practice e-learning has been used as a tool of various technologies, such as internet, intranet, interactive TV, videos, CD-ROM, audio recordings, etc. Due to the advancement of the internet, e-learning is defined as the use of learning technology which is linked to the use of web browsers as a tool for interacting with the participant of the education process (Hassanzadeh, Kanaaani, Elahi, 2012). This system is known as platforms (e.g., Moodle, Blackboard, etc.) which help the lecturer/instructor to transfer knowledge to students in a modern and interactive way.

The e-learning system is essentially an information system based on the World Wide Web (WWW) and offers a student gaining knowledge in a more flexible way (Lee, Lee, 2008). It also includes components such as learning management system or learning content management system where a complete e-learning portal has the complete integration of multimedia, instructor-led and real-time training represented in a collaborative environment (Veeramani, 2010).

Efficiency and success of e-learning requires the user (lecturer) to pay great attention to the precise planning of his work and the work of the student, observing and controlling the student's work when transforming the learning content and methods from the classical system of study into the e-system. The role of the lecturer has changed and requires good organization, quick responsiveness in e-communication, flexibility at work, good knowledge and use of different technologies. Rodriguez-Ardura and Mesenguer-Artola (2016) believe that e-learning allows an individual to build his own knowledge by giving him access to didactic resources and learning and teaching methods, regardless of location and time component. Furthermore, they believe that this mode of learning empowers an individual user to adjust the content and method of communication according to the needs of the individual. Instructors/lecturers become learning promoters who, with their approach by creating additional learning material, individually guide and advise individuals in the learning process (Edwards, Perry, Janzen, 2011). The format of e-learning, when used properly, allows teachers to provide targeted feedback in person based on students' e-learning results (since they can be checked online), which in turn positively affects classroom performance, which again pays

dividends for the following e-learning assignment. This sort of virtuous cycle is greatly facilitated by the granularity of the data provided by the e-learning system (length and time of use, answers for both correct and incorrect attempts, etc.). (Fryer, Bovee, 2018).

E-learning has evolved rapidly in all years of information and communications technology advancement and has become a constant in the education system; the focus of research to search for improvements has been changing from 2001 to today. At the beginning the focus was on research of the contents of study subjects, next on the use of e-learning platforms, then on the satisfaction of students and teaching methods, expectations of students from online studies, and in recent years the focus has been on exploring how individual characteristics affect e-learning. (Cidral et al., 2017).

2.1. Use of e-learning in higher education

Educational pedagogy has shifted from traditional to having a method of electronic learning or e-learning and e-learning became a technology enhanced teaching classroom. E-learning is mainly focusing on higher education in which it has created a new perspective in giving educational opportunity for students. The need for fast delivery of knowledge and information whenever and wherever has been the catalyst for the growth of e-learning worldwide and became the critical element in organizational success (Veeramani 2010).

A higher education institution that wants to introduce e-learning as a modern, current and efficient method of study, must first systematically prepare and analyse the needs of the student (user) and the higher education institution (provider). Taking into account time and geographical separation (anytime and anywhere) we prepare appropriate digital material, which is the basis for learning and teaching, and we include appropriate pedagogical approaches with advisory and technical support for lecturers and students. There are two types of e-learning distribution, one is real time and synchronous, and the other is flex time, which is asynchronous (Khan, Badii 2012).

E-learning offers students greater opportunities for reflection and for complete ideas, greater flexibility due to unrestricted access to teaching materials, greater student control over learning material, greater and richer interactive activity due to active learning through videoconference. Learners have various individual needs and characteristics such as different prior knowledge, cognitive abilities, learning styles, motivation, etc. hence they cannot be treated in a uniform way (Klašnja-Milićević, Vesin, Ivanović, 2018).

The online learning environment must be interactive and provide students with access to a diverse form of remote sources and communication tools. Students should be able to download and save teaching slides, lecture notes, tutorial questions, online forum, online quizzes, videos, audios, their assignments as well as questions to lecturers and other materials as and when needed. On the other hand, it should be borne in mind that in order to carry out e-learning, first of all, you must have motivated and trained personnel (lecturers) who will be ready to master modern technology for knowledge

transfer, will be able to prepare appropriate e-materials and other teaching materials for the e-classroom, will be well organized and keep the online classroom up-to-date, motivate students to use the e-classroom, carry out self-evaluation and constantly look for improvements in their work with students. Therefore, at the e-learning planning stage the higher education institution must ensure technological conditions, find the appropriate platform, provide appropriate personnel, and consider how it will provide technical and professional support to lecturers.

According to Fryer and Bovee (2018), e-teaching might also be framed as the support teachers provide during classroom studies for assigned online student work, e.g. emphasising its importance for the course learning, making clear how it fits into classroom- and textbook-based work, making a case on how online study will enhance students skills/knowledge in the course's domain, presenting a case where the component is more appropriate online rather than in class, or pencil and paper based self-study.

The university infrastructure should be adequate, reliable and capable of delivering the content to students. This includes IT tools such as network accessibility, bandwidth and security, video conferencing, audio and video plug-ins, user interface etc. The platform should be user-friendly and easy to be utilized by the students and lecturers.

According to Accuosti (2014), teachers' requirements, technology tools and functions, students' needs and social environment are the main factors for effective educational technology use in educational institutions. What matters the most is that learning is viewed as a bridge between educator, learner, classroom and technology. The combination and assimilation of these elements promote and enhance learning optimally (Ghavifekr, Mahmood, 2017).

3   Motivation for e-learning

Motivation is one of the most important factors related to human behaviour that is aimed at reaching the set goals. It also has a significant impact on individuals' learning process, as it refers to deciding what, how and when to learn. The researchers discovered that motivated students achieve more complex goals, perform more demanding activities, take on an active role in these activities, enjoy them and are more creative (Schunk, Pintrich, Meece, 2008).

The motivation of students is divided into two types: internal and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation: A student is intrinsically motivated when he or she is motivated from within. Intrinsically motivated students strongly involve themselves in learning from a unique thing, interest or gratification, or in order to achieve their own scholarly and personal goals. Intrinsically motivated students like to use strategies that need more struggle and that allow them to process information more extensively (Harandi, 2015). Extrinsically motivated students tend to put forth the least amount of struggle needed to get the most reward (Afzal et al., 2010).

Research findings show that motivation can be a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that cannot be fully explained from the perspective of motivation as either a learner characteristic or an effect of learning environment design (Hartnett, St. George, Dron, 2011). This has important implications for online instructors.

Learning success or failure of students is usually interpreted with the appropriate degree of motivation or lack of motivation. Highly intrinsic motivated students in a learning environment accept more demanding tasks, they are more successful, creative and positively oriented in completing tasks. Litt and Moore (2013) consider the factors that increase or decrease students' level of motivation in distance education are as follows: technology, content, lack of communication and interaction, everyday problems, instructor's rigor and lack of personalization in learning. They further suggest that we can increase students' motivation by paying attention to the strategies we use in e-learning: interaction (maximizing student and instructor connection, regular contacts, timely responses, engaging in discussions, personal notes), feedback (timely and personal), diversity (use of innovative and attractive web tools in the subject), technological devices (availability, support). Fair and honest feedback, communication and rewards (e.g., praise) are linked to intrinsic motivation. Students who are eager to study a subject and appreciate the learning environment engage more (Van Seters et al., 2012).

In an online learning environment motivation for learning is the one that stimulates and maintains the interest of a student to become involved in the studies and continue to pursue an activity. Just as motivation is a key factor in learning and achievement in face-to-face educational contexts, so it is in online learning environments. Contemporary views link motivation to individuals' cognitive and affective processes, such as thoughts, beliefs, and goals, and emphasise the situated, interactive relationship between the learner and the learning environment (Brophy, 2010).

Lecturers think that online students usually have higher intrinsic motivation, more interest than students in a traditional learning environment, they are ready for online learning and have high levels of information, skills and efficacy, and also have high levels of academic motivation. According to Bernard *et al.* (2015), the combination of e-learning and mentoring is particularly helpful, and this increases compliance by maintaining motivation.

Azevedo et al. (2010) claim that learning in hypermedia environments involves the use of numerous self-regulatory processes, such as planning, knowledge activation, metacognitive monitoring and regulation, and reflection. Self-regulation of study is connected to the intrinsic motivation for studying and it helps the distant education student to decide for it and then to be active in his studies. The planning of their obligations, the possibility of participating in the creation of a process of study, evaluation, reflection of their work, individual adaptation gives them the feeling that they have control over their studies. However, in order to successfully establish self-regulation, the possibility of cooperation and choice should be offered. A central goal of

education and learning is to motivate students to engage and be active in a course (Hanus & Fox, 2015).

4 Methodology

In the research we used two independent deliberate, non-probability samples. A total of 77 people was included, 51 % of which were male and 49 % were female. The age of respondents ranged from 19 to 58 years. The study included DOBA Faculty of Applied Business and Social Studies, Maribor and the Faculty of Industrial Engineering, Novo mesto. The data for the study was collected in September of 2018. As a measuring instrument we used a survey questionnaire with seven-level modified Likert scales, where level 1 meant "absolutely nothing" and level 7 meant "completely". The set of questions was testing expression of extrinsic and intrinsic motivational drivers for study, as well as subjective and objective indicators of study success. The data was processed with the statistical software IBM SPSS Statistics 19.

5 Descriptive statistics, determining differences between the faculties and correlation links between intrinsic motivational drivers and study performance

In the chapter we present the results of descriptive statistics and the results of determining differences between both faculties with T-tests at the prior Levene's Test for Equality Variances in order to check the compatibility of both samples. The results of correlation coefficient between the intrinsic motivational drivers and study performance (Pearson correlation coefficient) are presented in the end.

5.1 Descriptive statistics

The importance of extrinsic motivational drivers for enrolment and study at the faculty was checked. Our findings show that students perceive online studies as extremely modern, always accessible, ecologically oriented and relatively dominant in our space.

Table 1: Extrinsic motivational drivers

Group Statistics

Online study is:	Faculty	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Modern	DOBA	53	6.64	.682
	FINI	24	5.96	1.268
Prevalent	DOBA	53	4.68	1.478
	FINI	24	4.71	1.083
Always accessible	DOBA	53	6.62	.765
	FINI	24	5.92	1.176
Inexpensive	DOBA	53	3.62	1.667
	FINI	24	4.29	1.601
Low quality	DOBA	53	2.02	1.474
	FINI	24	2.58	1.613
Ecological	DOBA	53	6.09	1.319
	FINI	24	5.79	1.474

We also checked for personal reasons that led students to the decision for online studies at the faculty. The results show that the strongest intrinsic motivational drivers for study are temporal and spatial flexibility and autonomy in study.

Table 2: Intrinsic motivational drivers

Group Statistics

Reasons for the study:	Faculty	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Time flexibility of the study	DOBA	53	6.68	.936
	FINI	24	6.71	.690
Spatial flexibility of the study	DOBA	53	6.42	1.232
	FINI	24	6.25	1.327
Autonomy with the study	DOBA	53	5.89	1.450
	FINI	24	4.92	1.586
Prestige	DOBA	53	2.36	1.733
	FINI	24	2.25	1.539
Higher difficulty	DOBA	53	3.13	1.755
	FINI	24	3.04	1.517

The success of online studies students was a subject of our interest as well. We examined the subjective success with attitudes towards the development of competences. Our findings show that online studies have an exceptional influence on the development of all the competences we have checked; the most it influences flexibility, organization and planning as well as the ability to adapt and the ingenuity of a student.

Table 3: Subjective indicators of success

Group Statistics

Competence development:	Faculty:	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Self-confidence	DOBA	53	5.17	1.566
	FINI	24	4.29	1.989
Interpersonal skills	DOBA	53	5.40	1.378
	FINI	24	4.46	1.769
Ability to effectively manage information	DOBA	53	5.91	1.148
	FINI	24	4.83	1.834
Creativity	DOBA	53	5.77	1.203
	FINI	24	4.75	1.939
Organization and planning	DOBA	53	5.91	1.319
	FINI	24	5.25	1.894
Ability to adapt	DOBA	53	5.87	1.287
	FINI	24	5.33	1.971
Flexibility	DOBA	53	5.98	1.101
	FINI	24	5.54	1.888
Critical thinking	DOBA	53	5.53	1.367
	FINI	24	4.67	1.685
Being inventive	DOBA	53	5.92	1.222
	FINI	24	5.21	1.933
Sophistication	DOBA	53	5.72	1.199
	FINI	24	5.08	1.742
Being responsible	DOBA	53	5.53	1.422
	FINI	24	5.00	1.911

As indicators of student's objective success, we gathered data on student's grade of the last successfully passed exam and the average grade for all the subjects in the previous year. Most of the students from both faculties have successfully passed the final exam with grades and completed the study year with the average grade between 8 and 9.

Table 4: Objective success indicators – latest exam grade and average grade of previous study year

Latest exam grade		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	6	2	2.6	2.6	2.6
	7	4	5.2	5.2	7.8
	8	28	36.4	36.4	44.2
	9	26	33.8	33.8	77.9
	10	17	22.1	22.1	100.0
	Total	77	100.0	100.0	
Average exam grade in previous study year					
Valid	Between 9 and 10.	30	39.0	39.0	39.0
	Between 8 and 8,9.	36	46.8	46.8	85.7
	Between 7 and 7,9.	11	14.3	14.3	100.0
	Total	77	100.0	100.0	

5.2 Determining differences between the faculties

Due to curiosity and testing the compatibility of both samples with prior Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, we discovered a predicted equivalence of variances in the vast majority of the cases and the fact that there are almost no statistically significant differences between the two samples. Therefore, we can conclude that both samples are fairly compatible, and they can be combined for further verification of correlations between the intrinsic motivational drivers and study performance. The observed statistically significant differences between the students groups are: for FINI students online studies are somewhat less modern and accessible than for DOBA students and it offers them less autonomy. In the perception of subjective success we discovered some important differences as well. With online study FINI students acquire somewhat less self-confidence, interpersonal skills, creativity and the ability to effectively manage information (Table 5).

Table 5: T- test of determining differences between the faculties

Independent Samples Test		Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
With online study I gained:		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Self-confidence	Equal variances assumed	2.530	.116	2.091	75	.040*
	Equal variances not assumed			1.912	36.454	.064
Interpersonal skills	Equal variances assumed	1.452	.232	2.527	75	.014*
	Equal variances not assumed			2.301	36.163	.027
Ability to effectively manage information	Equal variances assumed	5.935	.017	3.125	75	.003
	Equal variances not assumed			2.640	31.451	.013*
Creativity	Equal variances assumed	9.258	.003	2.833	75	.006
	Equal variances not assumed			2.386	31.297	.023*

*(p<0,05) **(p<0,01)

5.3 Correlation links between intrinsic motivational drivers and study success

In the end we present the most important results of the research, namely the links between intrinsic study motivational drivers and study success. We discovered the surprising fact that intrinsic motivation is not at all linked with objective indicators of success, that is, formal study success (latest exam grade and average grade for all subjects in the previous study year). Conversely, we discovered a weak to moderately statistically significant link between subjective performance (competence development) and intrinsic motivational factors (temporal and spatial flexibility and autonomy in study). The strongest competence development link is with temporal flexibility, followed by autonomy in study and spatial independence. Feeling of prestige is associated only with self-confidence, interpersonal skills and sophistication.

Table 6: Correlation links between intrinsic motivational drivers and study success

Correlations

		Temporal flexibility of the study	Spatial flexibility of the study	Study independence	Prestige
Self-confidence	Pearson Correlation	.416**	.258*	.286*	.297**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.024	.012	.009
	N	77	77	77	77
Interpersonal skills	Pearson Correlation	.445**	.276*	.448**	.225*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.015	.000	.049
	N	77	77	77	77
Ability to effectively manage information	Pearson Correlation	.474**	.270*	.399**	.165
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.017	.000	.152
	N	77	77	77	77
Creativity	Pearson Correlation	.426**	.336**	.418**	.147
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.000	.201
	N	77	77	77	77
Organization and planning	Pearson Correlation	.484**	.350**	.510**	.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.000	.387
	N	77	77	77	77
Ability to adapt	Pearson Correlation	.444**	.343**	.421**	.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.000	.387
	N	77	77	77	77
Flexibility	Pearson Correlation	.484**	.348**	.426**	.101
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.000	.381
	N	77	77	77	77
Critical thinking	Pearson Correlation	.445**	.330**	.393**	.216

Correlations

		Temporal flexibility of the study	Spatial flexibility of the study	Study independence	Prestige
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.000	.059
	N	77	77	77	77
Being inventive	Pearson Correlation	.455**	.379**	.459**	.134
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.246
	N	77	77	77	77
Sophistication	Pearson Correlation	.319**	.204	.232*	.241*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.075	.042	.035
	N	77	77	77	77
Being responsible	Pearson Correlation	.437**	.399**	.407**	.188
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.102
	N	77	77	77	77

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

6 Discussion

Why there are certain differences between the two faculties will not be discussed in this paper as it is not the focus of our research. The reason may lie in different student profiles or it is more banal, e.g., use of different study platforms Blackboard vs. Moodle. The finding is definitely interesting, and it can be the subject of further research and verification.

The conclusion that intrinsic motivation is not at all linked with objective indicators of success, that is study success, means that students are learning for themselves, their own actual benefit and not to have high grades or just to receive a degree. This is also confirmed by the further finding that intrinsic motivational drivers are in fact related to development of various student's competences. In particular, temporal independence and autonomy in study are weakly to moderately linked with all the examined competences which students develop within the learning process. This tells us that students participate in the learning process in order to gain subjective benefits, such as knowledge and skills, regardless of formal performance, that is a study grade. They also develop their personal qualities by studying and thus improve their self-image.

Our results are partially confirming findings of other authors mentioned in the introduction of the paper in particular of Azevedo et al. (2010) which are stating that students believe that autonomy of temporal and spatial planning of obligations gives them the feeling of having a control over their studies, which necessarily contributes to better subjective study success.

Through the research, we managed to discover the most important reasons for enrolment and study in e-learning programs. We also established the links between intrinsic motivation and study success of the students.

7   Conclusion

We conclude the article with the idea that the first such preliminary research in Slovenia in the field of intrinsic motivation of students in online studies gave some answers about the reasons for enrolment in online studies, intrinsic motivation for study and consequentially – objective and subjective study success of the student. One of our most important findings of the research, intrinsic motivation and school assessment (formal study success) are not linked, indicates the correct direction of the development of online studies in Slovenia. If the learning process is conceived in a way where participants gain content which is measurable on a quality level (e.g., acquired competence) and a quantified taxonomy of success (e.g., a school grade), which is less important or unimportant, this means that students want and expect results that will help them in their personal development, both business and private, and not simply contribute to career progression due to the acquired diploma. Independence and autonomy of online students require constant interaction between a student and instructor, feedback, use of innovative and attractive web tools. Due to the specifics of the implementation, the online study process differs from the classical and expects a greater involvement of both teachers and students, although students do not perceive online study as more demanding than classical. Because of that the number of classical students is dropping compared to online students at the faculties offering both types of studies. We are aware that our research has certain limitations, but it opens up new aspects of in-depth research in this field.

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10 Competitive Advantages for Schools: What Is Important When Students Decide What and Where to Study

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Abstract: *Besides the question what to study, where to study certainly is a crucial question of all students. To get as many students as possible, faculties must have a clear understanding of decision factors - how and why students choose different schools. In our study MaxDiff (best-worst scaling) was used as an approach for obtaining preference/importance scores for main attributes, that affect student's decision. Our results show the great importance of all characteristics that are associated with experience of lecturers in real economy and practice. Students also want as many practical examples as the fundamentals of the pedagogical process.*

Keywords: *MaxDiff approach, student's preferences, score, faculty choice*

Konkurenčne prednosti visokih šol in fakultet: kaj je pomembno, ko študentje izbirajo šolo

Povzetek: *Poleg odločitve kaj bo student študiral, je kje bo študij potekal, ključno vprašanje. V želji, da bi visoke šole in fakultete dobile čim več študentov, morajo seveda dobro poznati odločilne dejavnike, ki na to vplivajo. Da bi ugotovili preference oziroma težo glavnih atributov, smo v naši študiji uporabili metodo MaxDiff. Rezultati kažejo, da so posebej pomembni vsi dejavniki, ki so povezani z izkušnjami predavateljev - v realnem gospodarstvu. Študentje si želijo v pedagoškem procesu tudi čim več praktičnih primerov.*

Ključne besede: *pristop MaxDiff, preference študentov, rezultat, izbira visoke šole ali fakultete*

1 Introduction

Choosing what (and where) to study can be one of the most important decisions in a person's life. It can affect the future of the whole family. On the other hand, schools are facing stronger competition, offering different possibilities from all over the world, and more and more demanding students (and sometimes their parents). The main objective of this paper was to find and categorize the most important decision factors in the process of choosing the right school[1].

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[1]   With the term »school« we mean any type of higher education institution ("visoka šola" or "fakulteta"), especially privately owned.

We can find several sources, papers, articles that are dealing with the motivation of students to choose the most appropriate school. There are a lot of factors that affect this decision process. In our paper we were looking for specific attributes that are important for students studying in Slovenia.

1.1 Conceptual background

Number of students is increasing, number of schools, programs and possibilities is growing. You can choose a school in your geographical area, school in other part of your own country, you can study at the school in another country or even different continent. Schools can be local or international. And finally, in these days you can also decide for on-line studies which allow you to be at home (or at work) and do all the activities, including team work and exams, on-line.

Therefore, potential students and their parents do a lot of research, mostly on-line. In order schools to be found, it is important not only to be shown on the first page in Google search, but to provide "educational content about … classes, references from other parents, and ways to communicate and engage with the admissions office" (Corrado, 2017). Internet is extremely interactive and despite schools having less control over the information spread among (potential) students it is inevitable for them to understand the ways students use to find and share information. That means constant and continuous activities on the web page, portals and social platforms (Burdett 2013).

Like in every other industry, schools must understand what the students' and their parents' needs and expectations are. All the communication activities performed by schools should also help them to decide for the "right" school (Maringe, 2006), highlighting the factors that influence the decision to choose to study in an institution (DesJardins et al., 1999).

If a school has a clear picture of how and why students choose to enroll in a particular institution, it is easier for them to find the right attributes that would position them as the choice (Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka, 2006).

Stacy Jagodowsky, a director of strategic marketing and communication at Cheshire Academy in Cheshire, Connecticut, highlighted six steps to a successful school marketing plan. They are: 1) identify goals, 2) prioritize, 3) assess needs and required resources, 4) brainstorm and refine ideas to build a strategy, 5) implement a school marketing plan, and 6) assess success (Jagodowsky, 2017).

To be able to prepare an effective marketing plan a good match between students' needs and expectations and what school has to offer (and can communicate its advantages).

Many students experience a lot of stress through the college choice process, since some of them lack understanding of their own goals, the other claim that they don't have enough information about their options, and so they are not able to choose "one option that would satisfy all of their objectives" (Burdett, 2013, 154). This is another reason why schools should be able to highlight their specifics.

High quality teaching is the most important factor for students based on a research among 62.366 international student studying at 65 universities in 12 EU countries conducted by Hobsons. Affordable tuition fee options and good ranking were high on the list as well. The possibility of meeting like-minded people was fourth factor, followed by a high graduate employment rate. Ability of meeting the entry requirements and good reputation were also mentioned often (International Student Survey, 2017).

In the USA schools started with a professional approach towards student recruitment quite some time ago while in Europe this is mainly a new concept, due to several reasons (Kinzie et. al., 2004; Kuehler 2006; Leszczensky & Orr, 2003, and Obermeit, 2012).

Situation in Slovenia is quite the same[2]. We have several public universities and privately owned and managed institutions that are all looking for students – as many as possible.

On 25th May 2018 there were 105 schools listed in a List of high education institutions and programs (Ministrstvo za izobraževanje, znanost in šport, 2018a) and 1010 programs! You can imagine the intensity of competition on a 2 million market. Of course, schools are not only oriented towards Slovenian students, they are mostly open to foreign students as well.

Definition of features or characteristics that influence the decisions of students, which school they chose to study at, was a delicate topic. It was related to cultural, political and economic activities. In the past half a century Slovenia has belonged to a country with highly developed social standards. Education has been exclusively in the public domain and free of charge. You would only have to pay for part-time studies.

Privately owned schools are present for the last two decades. The number of students in the generation usually counts from 20 to 40 students.

2 Methodology

The process of establishing our approach was quite long – we started with the qualitative analysis of students' needs, reasons for their decision. In the class we identified several clusters of characteristics important for students and later we organized them in logical groups. Then the quantitative approach followed, in classes again. Students attending the studies were meant to describe and rank the characteristics / factors that were important at the time when they were deciding.

And at the end, the Maximum Difference Scaling method was chosen, using a set of 20 facts.

MaxDiff (best-worst scaling) is an approach for obtaining preference/importance scores for multiple items, based on the method of paired comparisons as a very old (at least to the early 1900s) and well-established approach for eliciting tradeoffs among paired

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2   Though official data on students in Slovenian public universities and schools with concession show decreasing trend in number of students since 2011 (Ministrstvo za izobraževanje, znanost in šport, 2018b)

items. It is a technique invented by Jordan Louviere in 1987. We could use this method for brand preferences, product features, advertising claims and other marketing research. With the MaxDiff method, respondents are shown a set of the carefully prepared items in the study and are asked to indicate the best and the worst items or most and least important.

Two hundred and ten students from five Slovenian private high schools and faculties participated in the study.

This approach enabled us to develop a model of selecting a high school, considering designated factors / attributes that make up the reason to choose one school over another. Using the MaxDiff method we measured which attributes had a significant impact on their choice. Student-related benefits in a form of questions, where students prioritized a list of performance attributes of schools, were asked.

2.1. Discussion in classes (qualitative research)

We decided to look for factors with the help of focus groups during the school process. At the first school (GEA College), we gave our students the homework to write at least twenty attributes which in their opinion influenced the decision which school is most suitable for them.

In this way, we have collected over 400 different characteristics related to the curriculum, the conditions of enrollment, the tuition fee rates and the method of payment, the environment and the location of the school, the schedule of lectures, and the reputation of the institution.

Many of the characteristics were very similar or almost identical. Therefore, we have compacted them in 20 characteristics, meaningfully related to each other. The amount of the tuition fees has been defined in three different arguments and the applicable average tuition fee of 2.000 € was increased to 3.000 € and decreased to 1.000 €.

We received an interesting record of personal experience from a student who did not perform her task as majority of them but sent us the following text. It is a typical qualitative description written by one of the students participating in the qualitative research as an example of several opinions that helped us defining attributes we wanted to examine in the following process.

> *I started researching private faculties and thought if I was for it. The first reason I decided for Gea College was my sister's recommendation. Then I explored further and found that they had the title 'Faculty of Entrepreneurship'. I wanted to become an entrepreneur, just like my father. I asked my mother about her opinion, she advised me to go to the faculty for entrepreneurship, because I already had some experience by my father, and that I had entrepreneurship "in the blood". That was the second reason. When I arrived on an informative day, I was very impressed. Small classrooms, spacious, comfortable chairs, huge windows, I felt homely. This has partly changed during the process of getting to know students who also came on the informative day. When we asked them if they had a home*

> *business, I felt a bit lost and excommunicated, because we do not have a family business, so I thought for a moment whether only those who have companies can apply to this faculty, why would they otherwise emphasize it…*

> *… One of the reasons that helped me to decide was the ad that convinced me: '90% of students get hired immediately after graduation'.*

2.2. Focus groups

Two focus groups were organized during the educational process at the second faculty (VŠPV). The result in both focus groups was virtually identical and coincided with the arguments defined based on the selection of the characteristics of the records of students from the first institution. So, we finalized a list of properties that we used in the next step.

2.3. Questionnaire – maximum difference scaling method

Our survey was held between February and April 2018. Students from five Slovenian private high schools or faculties were invited to participate in the study. More than two hundred responded and finished the questionnaire.

Respondents who entered on the page with the questionnaire, were asked to choose the most important and the less important fact from a five-list-facts. Combination of facts was randomly selected by the system where combinations of items were carefully designed with the target to each item to be shown an equal number of times. And every respondent usually saw each item two or more times across the survey. Each fact appeared several times and respondents were able to consider them in different combinations.

There were twenty facts used in our survey and they were defined and selected based on the qualitative research (see above):

1 Tuition is up to 2,000 € per year.
2 The course fee is up to 1,000 € per year.
3 Tuition is up to 3,000 € per year.
4 The Faculty is in a large city, where many students study.
5 The Faculty is outside Ljubljana, where the environment is more peaceful.
6 The Faculty is near the place where I live.
7 There is a free parking close to the school.
8 The Faculty is reputable, with a long tradition.
9 Faculty is a part of the public education system.
10 There is a lot of practice in the education program.
11 Exercises and lectures are based on (analysis of) case studies.
12 Subjects are comparable with the program of other faculties.
13 Lecturers are experienced practitioners.
14 Lecturers are mainly academics.
15 A few students are enrolled, so the lecturers' approach can be more individual.

16 I can pay tuition fees in several installments.

17 The Faculty is quite new, so it is more flexible and accessible.

18 The Faculty is private with an innovative educational approach.

19 The Faculty advertises a lot in the media and on social networks.

20 The Faculty is recommended by a lot of acquaintances and friends.

Five clusters of characteristics were considered:
- price of the program;
- location of the school;
- tradition / practical usefulness / program;
- number of students;
- communication tools.

3 Results

For summarizing respondents' preferences, we used counting analysis, the quick summary method called "counts". It simply looks at how many times an item was available within sets and counts how many times it was chosen either best or worst. The percent of times an item was chosen as best or worst (when it was available) is termed the "count proportion."

The report (Table 1 on next page) shows results for 210 respondents and 1680 sets (each respondent received 8 choice sets; 210 x 8 = 1680). Each respondent had to choose 8 best and 8 worst items in all 8 questions. Not all questionnaire versions were used but we see from the "Number of times shown" column that each item was shown almost the same number of times (411 to 432 times).

Table 1: MaxDiff counts analysis

MaxDiff Exercise	x
Sets Included	All
Respondents Included	Completes
Total Number of Respondents	210
Total Number of Sets	1680

Label	Item No.	Times shown - best	Times selected best	Best count proportion	Times shown - worst	Times selected worst	Worst count proportion
Tuition is up to 2,000 € per year.	1	428	41	0,096	428	63	0,147
The course fee is up to 1,000 € per year.	2	416	66	0,159	416	60	0,144
Tuition is up to 3,000 € per year.	3	417	30	0,072	417	59	0,141
The Faculty is in a large city, where many students study.	4	420	7	0,017	420	244	0,581
The Faculty is outside Ljubljana, where the environment is more peaceful.	5	420	2	0,005	420	245	0,583
The Faculty is near the place where I live.	6	416	42	0,101	416	172	0,413
There is a free parking close to the school.	7	418	34	0,081	418	149	0,356
The Faculty is reputable, with a long tradition.	8	421	126	0,299	421	17	0,040

Label	Item No.	Times shown - best	Times selected best	Best count propor- tion	Times shown - worst	Times selected worst	Worst count propor- tion
Faculty is a part of the public education system.	9	418	32	0,077	418	117	0,280
There is a lot of practice in the education program.	10	415	160	0,386	415	11	0,027
Exercises and lectures are based on (analysis of) case studies	11	417	188	0,451	417	14	0,034
Subjects are comparable with the program of other faculties.	12	414	100	0,242	414	50	0,121
Lecturers are experienced practitioners.	13	431	242	0,561	431	11	0,026
Lecturers are mainly academics.	14	432	59	0,137	432	65	0,150
A few students are enrolled, so the lecturers' approach can be more individual.	15	412	100	0,243	412	45	0,109
I can pay tuition fees in several installments.	16	425	134	0,315	425	30	0,071
The Faculty is quite new, so it is more flexible and accessible.	17	432	66	0,153	432	88	0,204
The Faculty is private with an innovative educational approach.	18	418	169	0,404	418	21	0,050
The Faculty advertises a lot in the media and on social networks.	19	411	17	0,041	411	169	0,411
The Faculty is recommended by a lot of acquaintances and friends.	20	419	65	0,155	419	50	0,119

In the column "Times selected best", we can see how many times each item was selected best (across all sets and respondents). Dividing the "Times selected best" by the "Number of times shown" results in the "Best count proportion." The higher the proportion, the more impact this item has on reenlistment.

The counts method of analysis is very intuitive, but a good way to get quick proportions of (top-line).

To be able to perform a more powerful and accurate analysis we used the HB (Hierarchical Bayes estimation) method. This method uses a sophisticated estimation technique to produce scores for each respondent on each item. Results are shown in the table below (Table 2 on the next page).

The first part on the sheet contains a summary of the final scores, upper and lower 95% confidence bounds. Into the *Probability Scale* individual-level item scores are positive values summing to 100 that reflect the likelihood of items being chosen within the questionnaire. We prefer to use this scaling procedure, as it is the easiest to interpret and to present our results. This approach has the valuable property of ratio-scaling. We can say, an item with a score of 10 is twice as important (or preferred) as an item with a score of 5.

Table 2: Rescaled scores (0 to 100 scaling)

Label	Item No.	Average	95% Lower	95% Upper
Tuition is up to 2,000 € per year.	1	3.16418	2.73226	3.59611
The course fee is up to 1,000 € per year.	2	4.21197	3.64327	4.78067
Tuition is up to 3,000 € per year.	3	2.79089	2.39897	3.18281
The Faculty is in a large city, where many students study.	4	0.34002	0.26731	0.41272
The Faculty is outside Ljubljana, where the environment is more peaceful.	5	0.22614	0.17902	0.27327
The Faculty is near the place where I live.	6	2.26509	1.75178	2.77841
There is a free parking close to the school.	7	1.81582	1.40841	2.22323
The Faculty is reputable, with a long tradition.	8	8.30641	7.80372	8.80909
Faculty is a part of the public education system.	9	1.63474	1.29721	1.97227
There is a lot of practice in the education program.	10	10.63051	10.15433	11.10669
Exercises and lectures are based on (analysis of) case studies	11	10.92218	10.41812	11.42625
Subjects are comparable with the program of other faculties.	12	6.13441	5.59383	6.67499
Lecturers are experienced practitioners.	13	12.05126	11.58627	12.51625
Lecturers are mainly academics.	14	3.23942	2.87814	3.60069
A few students are enrolled, so the lecturers' approach can be more individual.	15	6.17273	5.60781	6.73765
I can pay tuition fees in several installments.	16	7.98169	7.37018	8.59319
The Faculty is quite new, so it is more flexible and accessible.	17	3.46444	3.00479	3.92409
The Faculty is private with an innovative educational approach.	18	9.72845	9.18117	10.27572
The Faculty advertises a lot in the media and on social networks.	19	0.59174	0.44435	0.73912
The Faculty is recommended by a lot of acquaintances and friends.	20	4.32792	3.83798	4.81786

Data Summary

Total Respondents	210
Total 'Best' Choices	1,680
Total 'Worst' Choices	1,680
Average 'Best' Choices per Respondent	8.00
Average 'Worst' Choices per Respondent	8.00
'Best' Responses by Position	
1	21.31%
2	19.23%
3	19.52%
4	19.58%
5	20.36%
'Worst' Responses by Position	
1	20.12%
2	19.17%
3	16.37%
4	20.71%
5	23,63%

Estimation Summary

Total Iterations	30,000
Fit Statistic (Root Likelihood)	0.529
Seconds per Iteration	0.008

4 Discussion and conclusion

In the context of our project we divided results – considering the scores - into four groups according to importance: items with high importance, secondary, low and items with no importance for choosing a school to study.

Items that have score from 0 to 2 were tagged as not important (no importance), items between 2 to 4 as less important (low importance), above 4 to 8 as more important (secondary importance) and above 8 as very important (high importance).

Table 3a: High Importance Items

Item		Average score
1	Lecturers are experienced practitioners	12,05
2	Exercises and lectures are based on (analysis of) case studies	10,92
3	There is a lot of practice in the education program	10,63
4	The Faculty is private with an innovative educational approach	9,73
5	The Faculty is reputable, with a long tradition	8,31

As we can see, the characteristics of schools related to practical skills, lecturers with practical experience, use of case studies and private faculty with an innovative approach are the most important factors influencing the decision at which school the students enrolled. The only characteristic not related to other claims in this group is the Faculty is reputable with the tradition. This latter characteristic is not necessarily related to other values that are more typical for the recent period of development of schools, especially smaller private faculties.

Table 3b: Secondary Importance Items

Item		Average score
1	I can pay tuition fees in several installments	7,98
2	A few students are enrolled, so the lecturers' approach can be more individual	6,17
3	Subjects are comparable with the program of other faculties.	6,13
4	The Faculty is recommended by a lot of acquaintances and friends	4,33
5	The course fee is up to € 1,000 per year	4,21

In the second group properties that are not as homogeneous can be found. Cheaper tuitions, the option of paying in several installments, recommendations from friends and acquaintances and subjects comparable with other faculties, are factors that can be attributed greater importance.

Table 3c: Low Importance Items

Item		Average score
1	The Faculty is quite new, so it is more flexible and accessible	3,46
2	Lecturers are mainly academics	3,24
3	Tuition is up to € 2,000 per year	3,16
4	Tuition is up to € 3.000 per year	2,79
5	The Faculty is near the place where I live	2,27

Tuition fees, the proximity of the place of residence, and that lecturers with an academic approach are considered to be less important factors.

Table 3d: No Importance Items

Item		Average score
1	There is a free parking close to the school	1,82
2	Faculty is a part of the public education system	1,63
3	The Faculty advertises a lot in the media and on social networks	0,59
4	The Faculty is in a large city, where many students study	0,34
5	The Faculty is outside Ljubljana, where the environment is more peaceful	0,23

The possibility of a free parking place, the school being in the city or is out of town in a quiet place, and that a school advertises in the media were considered to be completely irrelevant factors that do not affect the students' decision on enrollment.

Students who already decided for their program – what to study - were participants in this survey therefore the program itself (usually the most important decision factor) was not taken into consideration.

Students mostly studied management or business-oriented studies.

Our goal was to detect the most important factors that affect the decision where to study - which school to choose. We used several methods, both qualitative and quantitative: discussion in classes, focus groups, questionnaire in classes and CATI survey (MaxDiff Scaling Method) that was held between February and April 2018. 210 students participated in this survey.

When deciding for the school (after they have already decided for the program), students in Slovenia prefer their lecturers to be experienced practitioners that use a lot of practical cases. Some kind of reputation and tradition are a must as well. It is highly anticipated that payment can be settled in several installments. Students also prefer that groups are not to big, since they expect a more personal approach.

For international students studying in Europe, scholarships, high quality teaching[3] and good ranking are important things. (International Student Survey 2017)

On the other hand, location od the school, being Ljubljana or some other big Slovenian city, is not a factor that would affect decision of Slovenian students.

Our findings could be useful for schools to be able to better define their competitive advantages or simply differences between competitive schools and to attract more students to study at their institution.

We are fully aware of limitations of our research. Our sample was relatively small, students were coming from five privately owned and managed high schools and

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[3] Indicators of high-quality teaching are: highly qualified staff, high graduate employment rate, up-to-date technology and online learning options, work placement organized by the university and high volume of face-to-face teaching hours.

faculties in Slovenia. There were no students from public universities - in the future it would make sense to carry out a survey among these students as well, to find out if there are differences between these two segments. It would be interesting to find out the results from Erasmus students that are currently in Slovenia. In the next step, survey could be carried out at schools in other countries as well.

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11 Learning Analytics in Formative Assessment: Case of Usage Rubrics for Monitoring Inter-rater Reliability

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Abstract: *In the paper we investigated rubrics as a tool for monitoring inter-rater reliability in formative assessment in online learning setting. Inter-rater reliability was tested at DOBA Business School where formative assessment is one of the pillars of quality support of online students. Pilot implementation of rubrics was tested for undergraduate online course with 183 students split into six study groups supported by six teaching assistants (raters) in two countries. Rubrics rating data, which were generated automatically during pilot implementation by Blackboard system enabled learning analytics investigation of inter-rater reliability by descriptive statistics, analysis of variance and post-hoc Bonferroni and Tukey tests. Statistical results demonstrate high level of assessment consistency among assessors and indicate reliability of their assessment. Results of statistical analysis were highlighted by qualitative analysis based on students' web survey and online interviews with assessors.*

Keywords: *online learning, evaluation, rubric, learning analytics, inter-rater reliability*

Učne analitike v formativnem ocenjevanju: primer uporabe razširjenih ocenjevalnih shem za spremljanje zanesljivosti preverjanja znanja z več ocenjevalci

Povzetek: *V prispevku smo preučili razširjene ocenjevalne sheme (angl. rubrics) kot orodje za spremljanje zanesljivosti formativnega preverjanja znanja z več ocenjevalci v online študiju. Zanesljivost preverjanja znanja z več ocenjevalci je bila testirana na DOBA Fakulteti, kjer je formativno preverjanje znanja eden od temeljev kakovostne podpore študentom pri online študiju. Pilotsko uporabo razširjenih ocenjevalnih shem smo preverili pri dodiplomskem predmetu s 183 študenti, ki so bili razdeljeni v šest študijskih skupin s šestimi online mentorji (ocenjevalci) v dveh državah. Podatki iz točkovanja na osnovi razširjenih ocenjevalnih shem, ki jih je med pilotno uporabo samodejno generiral sistem Blackboard, so omogočili raziskavo zanesljivosti preverjanja znanja z več ocenjevalci na načelih učnih analitik z deskriptivnimi statistikami, z analizo variance ter s post-hoc testi. Statistični rezultati kažejo visoko stopnjo konsistentnosti med ocenjevalci pri preverjanju znanja in tako nakazujejo zanesljivost njihovega ocenjevanja. Statistične rezultate smo*

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tudi osvetlili s kvalitativno analizo na osnovi spletnega anketiranja študentov in online intervjujev z ocenjevalci.

Ključne besede: *online študij, evalvacija, razširjene ocenjevalne sheme, učna analitika, zanesljivost ocenjevanja*

1   Introduction

In education, rubrics are not a new phenomenon. In 1997, Popham introduced definition: rubrics include evaluative criteria, quality definitions for those criteria at particular level of achievement, and a rating strategy (Popham, 1997). Rubrics are documents that articulate the expectations for an assignment, or a set of assignments, by listing the assessment criteria and by describing levels of quality in relation to each of these criteria (Reddy and Andrade, 2010). As such, they serve as tools for facilitating accurate and fair assessment of authentic and complex students' work and performance (Jonsson and Svingby, 2007). Usually, rubrics are presented in the format of table with criteria in rows, rating scale (level) in columns and explanations of the achieved level of a criterion in cells of the table.

There are several benefits of using rubrics stated in the literature. On one side, rubrics could enhance student performance by increasing transparency of assessment process, lowering student's anxiety regarding assignments, enabling feedback process, and supporting student self-efficacy and student self-regulation (Panadero and Jonsson, 2013).

On the other side, rubrics could increase quality of teaching and have the potential to act as 'instructional illuminators' (Popham, 1997, 75). Usage of rubrics could improve objectivity of assessment (Reddy and Andrade, 2010). Evaluation of rating rubrics could reveal weak points of course instructional design and its delivery and indicate ways of its amendments.

In recent years, the use of rubrics for formative assessment has gained more attention (Panadero and Jonsson, 2013). Assessment is formative when it gathers information in an ongoing manner throughout a course. That information is then used to guide teaching and to improve learning and performance (Orlando, 2011). Formative assessment is of particular importance for online learning where spatial separation of teacher and students necessitates continuous feedback and interaction to support independent learning.

In our view, opportunities for quality formative assessment are substantially enhanced in ICT supported learning environment when exploiting learning analytics of rating rubrics. In this paper we examine one aspect of improving formative assessment by learning analytics based on rubrics. This is usage of learning analytics based on automatic generated data on rubrics rating by LMS (learning management systems) for monitoring inter-rater reliability of formative assessment. The problem of inter-rater reliability is very frequent in online learning for big or even massive online courses where

huge number of enrolments demands support of several raters or assessors. This problem is also present in collaborative learning, which is organised in smaller groups, as it is practised at DOBA Business School.

Thus, we addressed the issue of inter-rater reliability at DOBA Business School in evaluation of pilot implementation of rubrics being a part of the research project of development of the usage model of the learning analytics at DOBA Business School[7].

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the analytical potential of rating rubrics as a simple tool for regular estimates of inter-rater reliability of formative assessment at course level.

The structure of the paper is as follows. The next section gives brief discussion based on literature review on the measurement on inter-rater reliability in formative assessment. Then the pilot implementation of using rubrics at DOBA Business School is described and feasibility of pilot data and respective methods for measuring inter-rater reliability are evaluated. Results of estimates of inter-rater reliability for several groups are presented and discussed in the next section supplemented by students and teaching staff views on rubrics. Paper concludes with some observations on advantages and limitations of the tested approach and reflections on direction for further research.

2 Measurement of Inter-Rater Reliability of Formative Assessment of Online Learning

In a continuously changing society new skills and competences for work and life are needed. The so-called 21st century skills and competences in learning process and goals can be assured only if assessment also changes. To foster and develop these skills, assessment strategies should go beyond testing factual knowledge and promote performance-based activities, which are capable to develop skills of critical thinking, problem solving, creativity, and reflection. At the same time, assessment strategies need to be better harmonised with 21st century learning approaches enriched by ICT technology in open and blended learning settings (Redecker and Johannessen, 2013). New assessment paradigm shift, term inaugurated by Redecker and Johannessen, puts at the forefront of the modern pedagogy the concept of formative assessment. OECD declared formative assessment as a central feature of the learning environment of the 21st century. Learners need substantial, regular and meaningful feedback; teachers need it in order to understand who is learning and how to orchestrate the learning process (OECD Innovative Learning Environments Project, 2010). When introducing performance

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7   The research project focused on the question how could learning analytics of the data that were gathered with accessible applications (Retention Center, Dashboard, Rubric, Course Report) of Blackboard contribute to quality improvement of four key strands of the learning process at DOBA Business School: identification of the high-risk group of students and lowering the drop-out, the quality of the pedagogical support, and instructional design, and quality of the assessment. See: Bregar, L., and Puhek, M. (2018). *Razvoj modela uporabe učnih analitik na DOBA Fakulteti: Poročilo projekta Smart DOBA*. Maribor: DOBA Fakulteta.

based formative assessment strategies, the problem appears whether assessors are competent enough to carry out tasks in a credible and trustworthy way. Well designed and clear rubrics along with the trained users could mitigate this problem (Gikandi et al., 2011). Nevertheless, continuous monitoring and assuring of assessment reliability is one of the ingredients of quality education.

Reliability refers to the consistency of an assessment and can be studied as intra-reliability or as inter-reliability. Intra-reliability is consistency of an individual rater across assignments, while inter-reliability is consistency of different raters (Svingby and Jonsson, 2007).

As shown by review of 75 studies on assessment reliability, intra-rater reliability was subject of only 7 studies. Most of research efforts on assessment reliability have been devoted to inter-rater reliability (Jonsson and Svingby, 2007).

In literature, three approaches of measuring inter-rater reliability are cited (Reddy and Andrade, 2010; Jonsson and Svingby, 2007; Stemler, 2004):

- consensus estimates, measuring the degree to which raters give the same rate to the same performance;
- consistency estimates, measuring the correlation of rates among raters;
- measurement estimates, measuring the degree to which rates can be attributed to common rating rather than to error components.

Table 1: Overview of methods of measuring inter-reliability

Consensus agreement	Consistency estimates	Measurement estimates
Percentage of total agreement	Pearson's correlation coefficient	Generalizability theory
Percentage of adjacent agreement	Cronbach's alpha	Many-facets Rasch model
Cohen's kappa	Spearman's rank coefficient	Principal component analysis

Source: Jonsson and Svingby, 2007; Stemler, 2004

Chong and Romkey (2016) examined 75 methods, which underwent Jonsson and Swingby review on assessment reliability. They found that a large number of studies have used percentage agreement (exact or adjacent) and Pearson correlation, while measurement estimates have been less present.

Prevalence of the consensus approach and Pearson correlation could be assigned to the intuitive character and ease of understanding and interpretation of the results. Advantage of consensus agreement approach is also that it is suitable for all types of data and deals effectively even with nominal data. However, these methods are very demanding in terms of staff resources, time consumed and they are not agile. All data have to be collected for all raters for each assessment item. It means that in principle all raters have to assess all assignments included in research. Resources, not only for carrying out assessment activities, but also for training raters are needed.

Due to these disadvantages, in our view, consensus agreement methods and consistency estimates methods are not suitable for monitoring of inter-rater reliability of *formative assessment on regular ongoing basis in online setting*. Regarding the needed resources, measurement methods are much less demanding, especially in technology supported environment (e.g. LMS) with automatic data generation. These methods cope with one set of data for each assignment item. Nevertheless, the results are given for aggregate level and part of information is lost. The quality of results depends on the fulfilment of assumption of random classification of observed units into groups and features of statistical distributions of dependent variable.

3 Methodology

Pilot implementation of using rubrics in formative assessment at DOBA Business School was carried out for undergraduate course "*Internal Communication*" in May 2018. Instructional design of the course "*Internal Communication*" is based on student cantered active learning approach. During the course a student has to complete several assignments. A student can pass the exam if all of assignments are accomplished timely and at required quality level. Considering that formative assessment could have formal impact on the recognition of student achievements and that majority of assignments are complex, the assurance of objective and consistent assessment of complex performance-based tasks is one of the central pedagogy issues. As shown in literature and supported by numerous cases introduction of rubrics could be helpful with this regard (Panadero and Anders, 2013; Malini Reddy and Andrade, 2010; Gikandi et al., 2013).

The pilot implementation was organized as a fully online self-paced online learning in Blackboard as the virtual classroom with participation of 183 students from Slovenia and Serbia. The course "*Internal Communication*" is a required course for study programme Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations (130 students of this programme were included in pilot, that is 71% of pilot students). It was also as an elective course chosen by students from three other programmes (Business Management – 38, 20.8%; Tourism Operations and Management – 1, 0.5%; Management in Social and Education Sector – 14, 7.7%).

As the rule of the maximum number of students in the particular online group, the course was performed in 6 different groups that were led by the same teacher (course leader) with the help of several teaching assistants. Students from Slovenia were randomly classified in five groups, while the sixth group consisted of students from Serbia; in the first five groups, the subject was held in the Slovene language (and also the evaluation using rubrics) and in the sixth group in the Serbian language. The sample consists of 28 (15.3%) students in first group, 36 (19.7%) in second group, 31 (16.9%) in third group, 33 (18.0%) in fourth group, 32 (17.5%) in fifth group and 23 (12.6%) sixth group. The gender of students was 122 (66.7 %) female and 61 (33.3 %) male students.

Course leader designed rubrics for four assignments (two of them were individual research papers and the other two team project works). Individual assignments concerned the understanding of basic concepts in the field of internal or employee communication. Thus, the purpose of the first individual assignment was to present an understanding of the theoretical bases of internal communication and apply them in practice. The second individual assignment focused on organizational climate and organizational culture and the concept of employee engagement. Team project work, which we will not discuss in this article, involved the preparation of a program for achieving employee engagement for a specific organization; teamwork has been divided into two stages - two team assignments.

Expected levels of learning outcomes for each assignment were also presented in the form of rubrics, in which expectations for achieving individual learning outcomes were expressed and presented in substance. Table 2 presents the expected levels of learning outcomes according to individual assessment criteria for the first individual assignment.

Table 2: Rubrics for the first individual assignment

levels of learning outcomes	*initial*	*professional*	*excellent*
The role, purpose and main goal of internal communication *(up to 8 points)*	*Points Range: 0 (0%) - 3.5 (14%)* From the content of the assignment, it is not clear that the subject matter is understood, there is no clear explanation of the required, or is required to be explained only partially, but insufficiently and without the links of the ideas of various authors with their own views.	*Points Range: 4 (16%) - 6.5 (26%)* From the content, it is mostly a clear understanding of the subject matter, this is correctly explained, or is explained only partly, but sufficiently, i.e. there is no linking of the ideas from different authors with their own views.	*Points Range: 7 (28%) - 8 (32%)* From the content it is evident that the author fully understands the discussed contents, explains them with a practical example, links the ideas of different authors and connects them with their own views, analyses and synthesises the main ideas in the concluding findings.
Positioning of internal communication in the organizational structure *(up to 8 points)*	*Points Range: 0 (0%) - 3.5 (14%)* From the content of the assignment, there is no clear understanding of the subject matter, there is no clear explanation of the required, or is required to be explained only partially, but insufficiently and without the links of the ideas of various authors with their own views.	*Points Range: 4 (16%) - 6.5 (26%)* From the content, it is mostly a clear understanding of the subject matter, this is correctly explained, or is explained only partially, but to a sufficient extent, whether there is no linking of the ideas of different authors with their own views.	*Points Range: 7 (28%) - 8 (32%)* From the content it is obvious that the author fully understands the discussed contents, explains them with a practical example, links the ideas of different authors and connects them with their own views, analyses and synthesises the main ideas in the concluding findings.

levels of learning outcomes	initial	professional	excellent
Characteristics, factors and obstacles to successful and effective internal communication *(up to 8 points)*	*Points Range: 0 (0%) - 3.5 (14%)* From the content of the assignment, there is no clear understanding of the subject matter, there is no clear explanation of the required, or is required to be explained only partially, but insufficiently and without the connecting of the ideas of various authors with their own views.	*Points Range: 4 (16%) - 6.5 (26%)* From the content, it is mostly a clear understanding of the subject matter, this is correctly explained, or is explained only partially, but to a sufficient extent, whether there is no linking of the ideas of different authors with their own views.	*Points Range: 7 (28%) - 8 (32%)* From the content it is obvious that the author fully understands the discussed contents, explains them with a practical example, links the ideas of different authors and connects them with their own views, analyses and synthesises the main ideas in the concluding findings.
Compliance with school instructions for preparing written assignments *(up to 1 point)*	Points Range: 0 (0%) - 0 (0%) The assignment does not consider the formality prescribed by the school instruction or/and the sources are not used, or their references and/or their references are not in accordance with the prescribed Harvard style.	Points Range: 0.5 (2%) - 0.5 (2%) The assignment considers the formality prescribed by the school instruction or/and the sources are mainly cited, or the reference to them in the text and/or references to the list of sources used is not in accordance with the prescribed Harvard style.	Points Range: 1 (4%) - 1 (4%) The assignment fully considers the format prescribed by the school instructions, the sources are listed, the reference to the sources in the text, and the reference to sources in the list of resources used is in accordance with the prescribed Harvard style.

Source: Pilot use of rubrics, course "Internal Communication", academic year 2017/2018

Rubrics are novelty in higher education in Slovenia. This required that some preparatory activities were implemented before pilot implementation. Thus, instructional written materials on basics of rubrics were prepared for pedagogy staff of the course. Course leader and member of project team offered teaching assistants short instructions. At the first introductory webinar the course leader also informed students about the novelty and its benefits. He specifically advised them to use rubrics as a tool (guide) in elaborating an assignment, since they are guided by clearly set criteria, which should be respected in the preparation of the assignment. Both, teaching assistants and students were invited to take part in evaluation phase. At the end of the course, students were asked to fill out the anonymous questionnaire to express their opinion regarding rubrics and the course performance; and teaching assistants to participate in online evaluation interviews.

During pilot implementation no specific problems on using rubrics were reported. In order to assure control over the evaluation of assessment by teaching assistants - assessors, course leader assessed four examples of each individual assignment per group and together with the explanation, forwarded them to the assessor assistants. The course leader, independently of the assessors' assistants, assessed each individual

task of all students for himself and there were no significant differences found between his individual assessment and evaluation of the assistants. Team assignments were assessed only by the course leader.

After pilot implementation quantitative data on 183 students of six teaching assistants' groups for four assignments, classified by rubrics variables, were available. Since rubrics were designed at percentage range scale (see Table 2), data have the characteristics of ratio data (i.e. quantitative continuous data). Control data are available only for a part of the two individual assignments and only for this segment inter-reliability measurement by all three approaches is feasible.[8]

In this paper we focused on data, which are originally produced by Blackboard system and do not require any additional resources and efforts. This is an essential feature, if the analytical approach should be used *as regular routine tool in formative assessment and not as a unique exercise for academic research purposes*. As already explained, the decisive advantage of measurement estimates is that it is not necessary that each assignment has to be assessed at least by two or more raters.

The analysis of inter-rater reliability for six study groups was carried out in several steps:

- Firstly, general picture of difference among teaching assistants rating was setup using simple descriptive statistics.
- Secondly, the significance of the differences was examined by analysis of variance along with testing homogeneity of variance.
- Thirdly, relying on the results of analysis of variance, the significance of differences was explored by post-hoc tests (Bonferroni and Tukey tests).

The analysis was carried out under the assumption that capabilities and study efforts of students as well as quality of study support tend to be equal among groups, thus differences among average rubrics rating could be assigned to teaching assistants (raters).

4 Results and Discussion

Results of pilot implementation of rubrics are shown in three parts. Firstly, results of statistical analysis of rating rubrics for two individual assignments are given and briefly discussed with focus on inter-rater reliability. Secondly, these results are highlighted by students' views on rubrics, collected by web survey after pilot implementation. Thirdly, teaching assistants' evaluation of rubrics benefits and hindrances also supplement statistical results. Evaluation was carried out by online interviews of teaching assistants and their written statements.

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[8]   Evaluation of the impact of method on inter-rater reliability will be discussed in another paper.

4.1 Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics was processed by Excel, and ONEWAY and post-hoc tests with the statistical package IBM SPSS Statistics 21.0. Data processing on rating rubrics at the level of the course as a whole and identification of the differences among study groups required first export of data and creation of integrated database for all six groups. Blackboard application allows processing of rubrics only at the level of basic organisation of the course, i.e. study group.

First step of statistical analysis was performed by descriptive statistics. The results for the first and the second assignment are presented in Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 3: Analysis of the differences in the assessment of the first individual assignment among groups using rubrics

Criterion:	Group 1 (SLV)	Group 2 (SLV)	Group 3 (SLV)	Group 4 (SLV)	Group 5 (SLV)	Group 6 (SRB)	Average points	% of possible points
The role, purpose and main goal of internal communication	7.49	6.94	6.95	6.80	7.04	7.25	7,10	89
Position of internal communication in the organizational structure *(up to 8 points)*	4.80	5.98	6.13	5.25	5.23	6.85	5.68	72
Characteristics, factors and obstacles to successful and effective internal communication *(up to 8 points)*	7.42	7.02	6.86	6.46	6.16	7.19	6.81	86
Compliance with school instructions for preparing written assignments *(up to 1 point)*	0.66	0.62	0.76	0.56	0.43	0.65	0.62	62
Average number of points *(max. 25)*	20.37	20.76	20.70	19.07	18.86	21.94	20.26	81
Number of assignments evaluated	29	35	31	33	32	23	183	

Source: Pilot use of rubrics, course "Internal Communication", academic year 2017/2018, own calculation.

The results in Table 3 provide useful information on the quality of the grading. They indicate that the *rubrics-based assessment system works well*. The differences between five groups from Slovenia (Group 1 to 5) are relatively small in relation to the average rate. Notable difference (1.9 points) was found only between group 2 and group 5. In the group 5, the average rate was 18.86 points (which is a 6.9% less than average rate), and in the group 2 it was 20.76 (which is a 2.6% higher average rate). This was largely due to the difference in the criterion of "positioning of internal communication", which assessed the application of theoretical knowledge to a specific case in practice. Generally, this criterion exhibits the largest variability and deviation from the maximum

number of possible points. Students of all groups achieved the worst results for the above criteria among the subject criteria, but the group 1 was the most modest. In addition, students of two groups (3, 4) achieved unsatisfactory results for the technical criterion of respecting faculty instructions for formatting written assignments.

Table 4: Analysis of the differences in the assessment of the second individual assignment among groups using rubrics

Criterion:	Group 1 (SLV)	Group 2 (SLV)	Group 3 (SLV)	Group 4 (SLV)	Group 5 (SLV)	Group 6 (SRB)	Average points	% of possible points
Defining and clarifying the importance of the employee engagement concept (8 points)	7.20	6.88	6.59	6.56	6.57	6.96	6.79	85
Defining the organizational climate and organizational culture, their dimensions and the connection with the values and engagement of employees (8 points)	7.09	6.79	6.91	6.51	6.98	7.28	6.92	87
Ways of achieving engagement of employees explained on a practical case (8 points)	7.19	6.79	6.58	6.62	7.01	7.16	6,89	86
Compliance with school instructions for preparing written assignments *(up to 1 point)*	0.71	0.69	0.92	0.53	0.49	0.64	0,66	66
Average number of points *(max. 25)*	22.19	21.15	21.00	20.22	21.05	22.04	21.28	85
Number of assignments evaluated	29	35	31	33	32	23	183	

Source: Pilot use of rubrics, course "Internal Communication", academic year 2017/2018, own calculation.

The group of students from Serbia (Group 6) achieved the best results on average. According to the course leader, the results can be attributed to the fact that this group consists of older students, who already have rich work experiences and a high degree of motivation for acquiring knowledge and competences in the field of communication. This example draws attention to the need to take into account the *circumstances that influence the outcome when interpreting the results.*

Data analysis for another individual assignment is presented in Table 4. From Table 4 there are no substantial differences between the average rubrics rating for the second individual assignment. A bit upward is the assessment of the assignment in group 6 (Serbia) and the group 1 of students from Slovenia, and slightly below the average in the group 4. But the differences do not indicate any systematic bias for any group or any criteria.

Analysis carried out by descriptive statistics offered valuable insight into performance of assessment for the six study groups. It gives clear picture of the level of coherence of the assessment of six raters in terms of overall achievements between groups. It also offers disaggregated results by individual criteria for each rater involved. Consequently, course leader has *a transparent and detailed picture of the consistency of the assessment.* This could serve also as basis for improving instructional design and its delivery (i.e. introduction of additional interactive students' activities for topic 2 "Position of Internal Communication within Organisational Structure" or amending instructions in assignment on this topic or revision of study literature etc.).

Our on descriptive statistics based findings were supplemented also by analysis of variance (ONEWAY). Analysis of variance is a statistical method for discovering impact of one categorical variable (i.e. rater) on the continuous quantitative variable (i.e. rubrics rating). This method reveals whether the rubrics rating differences among raters are statistically significant.

Before performing ONEWAY analysis assumptions on homogeneity of variance and normality of distributions by groups of dependent variables were examined. Control of distribution pointed certain deviations (left skewed distribution), but we consider it still acceptable, since analysis of variance is quite robust regarding this assumption and it requires only approximately normal distribution of dependent variable.

Homogeneity of variances was tested by Levene's test, which confirmed the required assumption of homogeneity of variances.

For the first assignment, analysis of variance did indicate significant difference among the six groups ($F(5, 180) = 2.47$, $p < 0.05$)), while for the second assignment this method did not point to the significant results ($F(5, 169) = 1.59$, not significant)).

Considering the findings of the descriptive statistics analysis which pointed specific character of group 6 with students from Serbia (more experienced and motivated learners) we carried out ONEWAY analysis *without this group*, only for five study groups from Slovenia. In this case, neither analysis of variance for the first assignment nor for the second one did not reveal statistical significant results (the first assignment: ($F(4, 153) = 1.88$, not significant)); the second assignment ($F(4, 147) = 1.47$, not significant)).

Results of the analysis of variance in two versions clearly indicated that special concern is needed when designing research and interpreting results of this method. Firstly, only one case of significant results is enough that results as a whole are shown as statistically significant. Secondly, this method does not provide information, which specific groups are statistically significantly different. Thirdly, for valid results is not sufficient that statistical requirements of homogeneity and normality of dependent variable are fulfilled, essential precondition is assurance of qualitative homogeneity of groups.

Because of sensitiveness and imprecision of the analysis of variance, we extended statistical analysis with post-hoc test (Bonferroni and Tukey), which identify each pair of groups with statistically significant differences. Post-hoc tests revealed that differences for any of the pairs of groups were not statistically significant in any of the four studied variants (the first assignment; the second assignment; six study groups five study groups).

4.2 Students' Opinion on the Usefulness of Rubrics

In addition to statistical analysis of students' achievements reflected by rubrics rating, we were also interested in opinions of students on the usefulness of rubrics.

At the end of pilot implementation of the course "Internal Communication", all students were asked to fill out an anonymous web survey, whereby 61 students responded (response rate 33.33%).

In the survey, we asked students about the satisfaction with rubrics, the way they used it and the positive and negative aspects of their usage. Certainly, students did not directly comment the issue of inter-rater reliability. Nevertheless, their general satisfaction with rubrics and their active attitude towards usage of rubrics could be treated as one of the factors, which contributed to the consistency of assessment among assessors.

In the first part of the survey, the evaluation of feedback that was provided with rubrics was included. First of all, we were interested in how the students were satisfied with the feedback on two assignments that included rubrics. The results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Students' satisfaction with feedback on assignment that included rubrics

		1*	2	3	4	5	6	7**	Total	M	SD
First individual assignment	n	2	1	2	3	6	14	33	61	6.02	1.5
	n%	3.28	1.64	3.28	4.92	9.84	22.95	54.10	100		
Second individual assignment	n	3	1	0	5	8	10	34	61	5.95	1.6
	n%	4.92	1.64	0	8.20	13.11	16.39	55.74	100		

*1 – completely dissatisfied; **7 – completely satisfied

Source: online survey

In general, students were satisfied with the feedback provided by rubrics, but in Slovenia a little more than in Serbia (group 6). On the 7-point Likert scale, students expressed high satisfaction with feedback on both assignments that included rubrics; with the feedback on the first task, they were somewhat more satisfied (6.02) than with the feedback on the second assessment (5.95).

The second part covered 12 statements about students' perception of rubrics regarding advantages and disadvantages in preparing assignments and assessment as well as rubrics implementation after pilot usage. Participants marked their opinions on a scale

from 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (totally agree). Students' opinions on the acceptability of using rubrics can be seen from Figure 1.
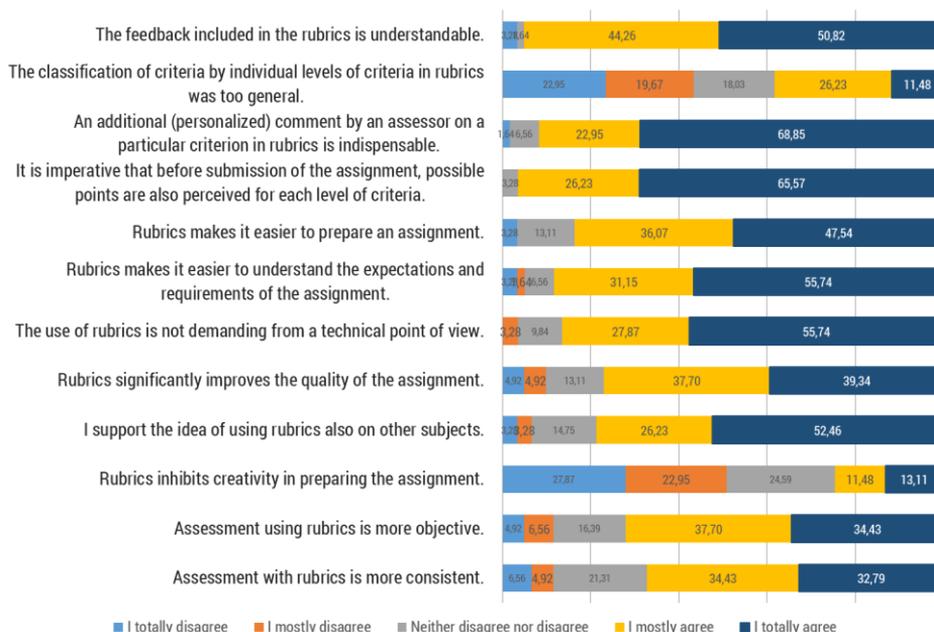

Figure 1: Students' opinions on the acceptability of using rubrics

Source: online survey

Generally, students expressed very positive statements about rubrics. The highest rate of agreement (more than 50% of the surveyed students totally agree) achieved statements that the feedback contained in the rubrics is understandable, that the levels of achievement by individual criteria are not too general, rubrics also make it easier to prepare assignments, as they express clear expectations of the assess. But additional personalized comments by the evaluator are nevertheless necessary and rating by assessment criteria should be known prior to submission of an assignment. Accordingly, students mostly support the introduction of rubrics in other courses.

Students' views relating to objectivity of assessment are also positive and straight; more than two thirds of students (mostly or totally) agree that assessment using rubrics is more objective and consistent.

4.3 Evaluation of the Usefulness of Rubrics by Teaching Assistants

The teaching assistants who co-evaluated the first and second individual tasks stated that they did not have any special problems with the first use of rubrics. One of them said that she initially had some concerns about how she would succeed in transferring

her previous (long) experiences used, but it turned out that the fear was redundant since she had no problems getting on the assessment with rubrics.

The other teaching assistant (with less experience) emphasized that the rubrics are especially suitable for novice teaching assistant for reasons of transparency and guidance. The teaching assistants did not have difficulty using rubrics either with respect to the criteria used (level of achievement), nor with regard to their breakdown, and they are considered as perfectly appropriate.

The advantage that the teaching assistants have highlighted most is greater objectivity due to clear and precisely set criteria, broken down by level of achievement.

The teaching assistant raised the problem of the constraints imposed by rubrics, since in their view some of the qualitative elements, in particular, cannot be included in the rubrics. In addition, the explanations of achieved level of a criteria in rubrics are quite general. In view of this, it is absolutely necessary to provide students with individualized feedback along with general (automatically forwarded information), since only individualised feedback allows for specific guidelines and advices for complementing the missing knowledge or upgrade competencies.

5 Conclusions

Rubrics serve as tools in assessment of authentic and complex students' work and performance. They are used widely worldwide and their role in pedagogy has been extensively discussed in the literature in the last two decades. In recent years, the use of rubrics for formative assessment has gained more attention.

In Slovenia, rubrics are novelty and their potential in higher education has not been examined by academia. In the paper we explored the usability of rubrics in learning analytics of formative assessment in online learning settings. Online education presumes a high level of digitalisation of study process where learning management system (LMS) such as Blackboard or other digital devices and applications automatically generate data on learning and teaching in real time. Exploiting such data by learning analytics could provide immediate and low-cost evaluation of learning process.

The idea of exploiting rubrics rating data in learning analytics for improving formative assessment was verified at DOBA Business School, within the project »The Development of the Usage Model of the Learning Analytics at DOBA Business School", carried out in the first half of 2018. At DOBA Business School the Formative assessment is one of the pillars of quality support of online students. High level of interaction in study process is enabled by organising study process in small study groups supported by online teaching assistants, whose responsibility is also formative assessment of students' ongoing work. Inter-rater reliability is thus highly relevant feature of quality formative assessment.

The empirical research of the analytical potential of rubrics rating data for estimating inter-rater reliability in formative assessment was exclusively based on data produced automatically by Blackboard. Inter-rate reliability was tested for undergraduate online course with 183 students split into six study groups supported by six teaching assistants (mentors) in two countries. Inter-rater reliability was assessed with statistical methods as permitted by scope and type of data automatically produced by Blackboard (descriptive statistics, analysis of variance and post-hoc tests). Results of statistical analysis were highlighted by qualitative analysis based on students' web survey and online interviews with teaching assistants.

Our research has led us to conclude:

1. Firstly, methodological approach based on rubrics data generated by Blackboard and on methods of descriptive statistics provide simple but efficient tool for immediate agile formative evaluation of inter-rater reliability for courses organised in a few groups. Certainly, this approach is fairly simplified compared to prevailing methods of academic research on inter-rater reliability. But its advantages in terms of ease of understanding for non-professional statisticians, low (near) zero cost and immediate availability qualifies it as a flash estimate of inter-rater reliability of formative assessment. This estimate could be highlighted by contextual and other relevant data. Also, descriptive analysis could be enhanced by post-hoc tests in the case of complex data with dozens of study groups for easier identification of inconsistency and deviations in assessment. Due to its sensitiveness and imprecision analysis of variance is not a reliable instrument.

2. Secondly, pilot formative assessment exhibited high level of consistency of rubrics rating among several assessors indicating that the reliability of their assessment was assured. However, available data did not allow to identify impact of rubrics in relation to other factors, which also contribute to quality results (experienced and motivated team of course leader and teaching assistants, strong assistance and monitoring of assessment by course leader, preparatory activities for introducing rubrics as new tool and related additional motivation of students and teaching staff). Not to ignore these factors, which could to certain extent contribute to the consistency, teaching assistants' evaluations explicitly point to the positive effect of rubrics on quality of assessment. Students' statements also expose beneficial influence of rubrics on assessment along with their usefulness in learning process.

3. Thirdly, analysis of descriptive statistics of rubrics revealed other valuable information on course performance as reflected in student assignments. This could also serve as the basis for further improving instructional course design and its delivery.

Main findings of the investigation on rubrics trace also interesting paths of future research:

- deepen evaluation of merits and drawbacks of simplified statistical methods of estimating inter-rater reliability for routine ongoing evaluation of formative assessment in daily practice compared to traditional approaches of consensus agreement and consistency estimates;
- measuring impact of rubrics on inter-rater reliability by experimental research approach or advanced methods of multivariate analysis;
- investigation of other effects of rubrics on quality of learning and teaching in online settings.

If we sum up, pilot implementation of rubrics at DOBA Business School and its evaluation revealed most of the advantages of rubrics, which are cited in literature and presented in cases of good practice. This encourages us to propose continuation of the experimental work on rubrics at DOBA Business School by applying them at a wider scale. But further development work must not overlook the critical points of success as learnt from pilot implementation: raising awareness about rubrics, training on rubrics design and its use in assessment and learning process. An especially important message of pilot use is that rubrics are not substitute for a specific individual advice to a student in formative assessment.

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12 Advancement of Teamwork in Online Learning: A Pilot Study

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Abstract: *In this paper we evaluate the impact of the "strengths project" on the efficiency and satisfaction with teamwork in a virtual learning environment. The project was targeted at 13 voluntarily selected students at DOBA Business School. They first learned about their strengths and how to apply them for a more efficient team collaboration. Afterwards, they were put together in four strengths-based teams and finally, the benefits of the Strengths approch were assessed by adopting various data collection techniques.*

Participants' overall experience with the Strengths project was very positive. They reported both personal and team-level benefits, which contributed to more efficient teamwork.

Suggestions for further adjustments of the current teamwork model are discussed at the end of the paper.

Keywords: *strengths-based approch, teamwork, team efficiency, virtual teams, evaluation*

Razvijanje timskega dela v online študiju: pilotna študija

Povzetek: *V tem prispevku so predstavljeni učinki pilotnega projekta razvijanja talentov na učinkovitost in zadovoljstvo s timskim delom v virtualnem učnem okolju. V projekt se je prostovoljno vključilo 13 študentov DOBA Fakultete. Najprej so spoznali svoje talente in načine, kako jih uporabiti za bolj učinkovito timsko sodelovanje. Nato so bili na osnovi svojih talentov razvrščeni v štiri time pri različnih predmetih, na koncu pa smo ovrednotili koristi tovrstnega pristopa s pomočjo različnih tehnik zbiranja podatkov.*

Izkušnja udeležencev s projektom razvijanja talentov je bila na splošno zelo pozitivna. Poročali so tako o osebnih koristih kot koristih na nivoju tima, ki so prispevale k bolj učinkovitemu timskemu delu.

Smernice in predlogi za nadaljnje izboljšave aktualnega konceptualnega modela timskega dela so obravnavani v zaključnem delu prispevka.

Ključne besede**:** *pristop razvijanja talentov, timsko delo, timska učinkovitost, virtualni timi, evalvacija*

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1 Introduction

1.1 Teamwork as a key transferable skill

Several recent higher education policy documents and/or research reports (European Commission, 2016; Care & Luo, 2016; Szafranski, Golinski & Simi, 2017) have identified teamwork as one of the keys "transferable", "soft", "generic" or "21st century" skills, that are relevant for the labour market and should be pursued by higher education institutions. Transferable or soft skills are those not related to a particular job, task, academic discipline or area of knowledge, which are learned in one context and can be later transferred to various different contexts (UNESCO-IBE, 2013).

The increased focus on transferable skills should be understood in the context of rapid economic and technological developments and the rapidly changing nature of certain occupations, which requires graduates and work-seekers to be able to adapt to different and dynamic environments (European Commission, 2016). In this respect, teamwork seems of particular relevance as problems are becoming more complex and for solving such complex problems teams of skilful experts are required. These experts should be able to collaborate and work together efficiently.

Research shows that development of transferable skills often does not meet the expectations and demands of the labour market. Recent study among Slovene managers has identified teamwork as a key missing transferable skill that has been inadequately and insufficiently developed both among employees and work seekers (Kolenc Potočnik, Geder and Puhek, 2015). It is hence of vital importance for higher education institutions to strive towards development of teamwork and other relevant transferable skills that would enhance the competitive advantage of graduates in the labour market.

1.2 Teamwork and determinants of effective teamwork

First, it should be made clear what teamwork actually is and why there is so much focus on teamwork both among practitioners and academics. Simply stated, teamwork normally produces synergies, which result in higher quality solutions in comparison to group work outcomes. Also, several contemporary challenges are too complex to be handled at the level of a group work. In other words, most complex problems cannot be simply subdivided into several subtasks that are taken over by different group members and later on composed in a final solution. On the contrary, to solve complex problems experts need to collaborate and work together extensively. And that is the key determinant of teamwork, which differentiates it from the group work. By definition, a team is an interdependent work group. It is a group of people who are mutually accountable and share responsibility for producing products, delivering services, completing assignments etc. Team members share overall work objectives and they are dependent on each other to achieve these objectives. Therefore, they have to work closely, interdependently and supp. ortively to achieve the team's goals (West, 2009).

Due to all that, teamwork often elicits solutions individual members would not come up with on their own.

However, teamwork is not an easy task. Having people being put together and expecting them to function like a real team, usually does not work. Every team goes through a complex process of team development, normally following distinct stages of the Tuckman's model (West, 2009). In other words, each team needs time to develop its full potential and members should learn about the key determinants and processes that contribute to effective teamwork. According to Clemens and Guido (2012) some of the crucial factors for team success or failure are the following: vision and project objective, expectations/definitions of team roles and responsibilities, project structure and working plan, quality of leadership, quality of communication, degree of cooperation and collaboration, level of trust and commitment, turnover of team members, coping with conflicts and dysfunctional behaviour.

To understand the circumstances of teams of students at DOBA Business School (hereinafter referred to as DOBA), which were taken under investigation for the purpose of this research, it is necessary to highlight the specifics of virtual and self-managing teams. For virtual teams the same determinants apply as for conventional teams, except for the fact that members are geographically dislocated and predominantly communicate with each other by means of computer-mediated information technologies. Beside several advantages of virtual teams, there are also a few threats that may undermine the optimal functioning of virtual teams. One of them is members' digital skills or their capability of using technology appropriately and efficiently. If team members are not confident in using technology to interact with others, they will not be able to contribute to the team with their full potential. Some would even argue that "collaboration technology cannot overcome all the challenges distance creates" (Lerner, 2008 in Ernhardt, 2009, 147). Another threat is related to issues of team dynamics, such as trust and cohesion. Namely, in virtual teams the lack of personal face-to-face interaction may negatively impact the set-up and maintenance of trustworthy personal relations (Ernhardt, 2009), which is the crucial determinant of successful and efficient teams.

Not only that teams of students at DOBA operate in a virtual environment, but they are also self-managed, which is another relevant implication for the team functioning. By definition, self-managed teams are teams without a preassigned leader. Instead, they are given administrative responsibility for their task/goals, which includes delegated activities such as planning, scheduling, monitoring and staffing (activities normally performed by team leaders) and it is up to them to re-organise and incorporate the leadership function within a team (Kreitner, Kinicki & Cole, 2007). This is often difficult as the selected team leader may lack the authority, power and/or skills to lead the team effectively.

1.3   Teamwork at DOBA

DOBA has been focusing on development of teamwork skills ever since the first bachelor online study program was accredited 15 years ago. Today, teamwork assignments are incorporated in almost every online course contributing significantly to the final grade (30-40 % on average). However, teamwork is not being developed very systematically, so that the students would be taught and instructed "how teamwork should be done". Basically, they have been put together in virtual teams and expected to work like teams. A significant shortcoming of the teamwork approch at DOBA is also related to the fact, that teams of students are not permanent, but they vary from course to course. In other words, every four to six weeks, with introduction of a new course, students are allocated to new teams with different team members, so the process of team building starts again from scratch. The idea behind is for students to gain experience from collaborating with a variety of team members, however, these rapid changes in team structure significantly affect the process of team building. According to Tuckman's model each team needs time before it develops its full potential (West, 2009). And we believe that during such a short duration of particular course over a few weeks most teams do not reach the fully performing phase.

There have been a few attempts, though, to increase the effectiveness of teamwork at DOBA, although their success is remains somewhat limited. First, in some online courses virtual teams were formed on the basis of Belbin's typology of team roles to ensure complementarity of team roles and sufficient heterogeneity of teams, which should normally contribute to a higher quality solution (Kreitner, Kinicki & Cole, 2007). But what often happened was that students ignored their dominant team roles and attempted to divide the tasks equally. Even worse, many teams simply followed the principles of group work by dividing content-specific subtasks to individuals, which were later simply integrated in the final solution without discussion, critical reflection and other vital components of teamwork. As team composition according to Belbin's typology did not yield desirable outcomes, students were given the opp. ortunity to self-select into teams in some courses. We assumed they would prefer to cooperate with people they knew well and with those with whom they have already had positive experience in the past, which should facilitate team collaboration. However, the danger of such an approch is that heterogeneity of team roles, which is essential for producing high-quality solutions, could be substantially reduced.

Second, one professor attempted to prepare students for teamwork by instructing them to organize an introductory "live" team meeting (via Skype) at the very beginning of the course. Students were given some literature about the principles of teamwork and during the meeting they had to discuss and agree upon the following: team roles and responsibilities of members, leadership and the tasks of a team leader, working plan with deadlines, team rules including communication and solving of disagreements and potential conflicts. From the reports it was not possible to conclude about the quality progress and the systematic process evaluation was lacking. Hence, we were unable to

assess whether introductory team meeting and prior preparation facilitated realization of teamwork assignments and contributed to the development of teamwork skills.

Third, in order to prevent students from adopting the principles of group work, certain professors adjusted the guidelines for teamwork assignments. Each member of the team should first prepare the whole assignment on his/her own, and later on, after reviewing and discussing all individual contributions, the team should come up with the final solution. Although students were instructed that the final solution should not be a simple copy-paste of individual contributions, this is what they most often did, with limited reasoning, critical questioning and upgrade.

And fourth, two years ago self and peer assessment was introduced as an integral part of team assignments in all courses. At the end of the course each team member should evaluate his/her own contribution and the contribution of other members to team assignments with both numerical and descriptive assessment. The objective of this approch was to motivate students for teamwork and to ensure fair distribution of grades according to the actual effort and team efficiency of each team member. Namely, self and peer assessment serve as a basis for differentiation of grades for team assignments within teams. Students can receive either positive (additional) or negative points for team assignments based on their level of engagement in teamwork. This assessment is based on solid grounds, although some refinements would be required. Now, there is too much focus only on contributing to the team assignment, on producing the final output. More attention should be given to assessing the team processes and individual qualities of team members, e.g. how much did an individual contribute to a favourable team climate.

1.4 Research problem

From the results of the student polls it is evident that students are highly satisfied with the contribution of particular online courses and the study program as a whole to development of their teamwork skills (on average around 6 on a 7-point scale). At the same time, however, reported satisfaction with teamwork is generally lower than the overall satisfaction with the implementation of particular courses, which may indicate the presence of process-related issues during teamwork, such as difficulties with team collaboration, solving conflicts etc. As teamwork is one of the key transferable skills, we believe that it should be developed more systematically to achieve even better results, with more focus on preparation and process factors.

In this paper we present and evaluate the last pilot project ("Strengths project") to up-grade the current teamwork model at DOBA, which was intended to help students become more successful and efficient with their teamwork assignments and more satisfied with their teamwork. In this context success was not understood as the quality of the team assignment and/or the final grade per se, but it was understood in terms of facilitating the teamwork process, enhancing the positive experience and well-being of team members. Hence, the main research question was the following: *Could the*

application of the Strengths project as an attempt to better prepare students for virtual teamwork actually facilitate the team processes and contribute to higher satisfaction with teamwork?

2 Methods

2.1 Innovative approach

Based on the limitations and shortcomings of the current teamwork model identified above we decided to adopt an innovative approch and implement and evaluate the impact of the pilot project, called the Strengths project, on teamwork of students enrolled in online study programs at DOBA. The project is based on the principles of strengths and virtues that originate in positive psychology (Rath, 2008). The key idea is that every one of us has certain strengths and talents – skills and abilities that we are really good at. And instead of focusing on correcting the negative aspects (errors and limitations), we should focus on our strengths and talents in order to grow, function optimally and enhance our well-being. To achieve that, strengths and talents should first be identified and then being systematically used and developed towards mastery. In that respect, the Strengths project served as a preparatory intervention that should facilitate interaction within teams, contribute to a smoother team functioning and to the positive overall team experience. We assumed that identification of students' own strengths and the guidelines to further develop these strengths towards mastery as well as recognising the strengths of their team members, would help them become more efficient and satisfied with their teamwork. This proposition is based on extensive pile of research by Asplund et al. (2015), where significant relationships between strengths-based employee development and various organizational outcomes (e.g. increase in customer and employee engagement, rise of profit or decrease in safety incidents) were demonstrated.

Students first took a "Strengths finder" test, provided by the expert company, and were later informed about their top five strengths. Afterwards, they participated in a virtual workshop, where the methodology of strengths (developed by Boston Group) was explained and where students were advised on how to apply their strengths for better teamwork cooperation at work, in education and family-time. During the workshop they also got the chance to become more familiar with their colleagues by learning about their top strengths. After the workshop students were put together in teams at subsequent online courses.

Participation in this pilot project was completely voluntary and did not in any way affect the final grades. As a minimal fee was requested for taking the "Strengths finder" test, we did not expect many students to apply. The pilot project was targeted only to master level students in Slovenia. From a total of 109 students who received invitation, 13 students (11.9 %) eventually applied and participated in the project.

In the sample there were students from all four master level study programmes: 6 students from International Business (MIP), 3 students from Marketing and sales (MP), 3 students from Management of Smart Cities (MPM) and 1 student from Innovation Management in Social Services and Education (IMSI). Participants were divided into four teams: two teams cooperated during the course Innovation in service sectors for 5 weeks, one team worked together at the course Market research for 6 weeks and another team participated at the course Understanding and management of smart cities for 5 weeks. Of those four teams, there was one "complete team", composed of three team members who were all taking part in the Strengths project, and three "mixed teams" where participants of the Strengths project were combined with either one or four other students who were not taking part in the project. Participants were divided into fixed teams only for those three courses specified above. But we observed that some participants continued with established team collaboration at subsequent courses where they had the chance to self-select into teams.

2.2 Research method

To evaluate the Strengths project and to assess its potential for a more systematic and wider use (e.g. with all master students) the case study research design with several variables to observe (by means of combined data collection techniques) was adopted. Although (primarily) questionnaires were used to receive feedback on the project, this research is considered qualitative in nature, due to several reasons: (1) we were interested in insights of students regarding the perceived impact of the project on their team behaviour and team-related perceptions – searching for the variety of opinions not consensus; (2) in spite of some closed-ended questions giving numerical evaluations, most questions were open-ended; (3) the sample was small.

For the purpose of this evaluation, different sources of data will be analysed and compared:

a)   a short online satisfaction survey administered immediately after the workshop via participants' emails (11 respondents, 84.6 % response rate),
b)   a short online survey[1] with mostly open-ended questions regarding students' participation and collaboration in teams that was administered approximately 3 months after attending the workshop via participants' emails (10 respondents, 76.9 % response rate),
c)   a peer assessment survey which students filled-in after completing each course in order to quantitatively and qualitatively assess their own contribution and the contribution of other team members to team assignments.

Ad c) The peer assessment serves as a basis for differentiation of grades for team assignments and is not related to the Strengths project. It is a mandatory activity

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[1]   With two participants, who did not respond to the survey, a telephone and face-to-face interviews were carried out.

integrated in all master-level courses. It consists of quantitative and qualitative evaluation of oneself and all other team members. First, the student should grade each individual on a 10-point scale (grade 1 – no contribution at all; grade 10 – substantially higher contribution than team's average) and second, the student should provide a detailed description regarding individual's teamwork and his contribution to the team assignment in order to justify the assigned grades. Average grades for each team member are then calculated and in case of major discrepancies within a team, additional negative and/or positive points are assigned (differentiation of grades within a team).

For the purpose of this paper we calculated the average grades across all individuals in a team for all teams at courses Innovation in service sectors and Market research (data on peer assessment for the course Understanding and management of smart cities were not available due to objective reasons) and then compared the averages between teams, composed of participants of the "Strength project", and other teams, composed of students who did not participate in the project. We also analysed the qualitative descriptions regarding individuals' team behaviour in case of 10 participants of the Strengths project to check, whether reflections could in anyway be attributed to the benefits of the project.

Qualitative data was analysed by means of the content analysis. Semantically similar answers were first identified and grouped into broader semantic codes (categories) and those were later interpreted in the context of research objectives. Most semantic codes were further illustrated by participants' literal citations (written in brackets in italic form).

3   Results

3.1 Workshop evaluation

A brief online survey was administered immediately after the workshop to measure participants' perceptions regarding the workshop. Numerical assessments indicate high level of satisfaction. Average scores for the implementation of the workshop (M = 6.3, SD = 0.8), lecturer's quality (M = 6.6, SD = 0.5) and the usefulness of acquired information about using strengths and talents (M = 6.4, SD = 1.0) are all above 6 on a 7-point scale.

In providing additional explanation to numerical evaluations participants emphasised the usefulness of acquired information about their own strengths and the awareness that due to different strengths and talents colleagues may respond differently, which facilitates mutual understanding. One participant explained: *"From now on I look somewhat differently at certain personality traits and I try to understand that individuals react differently in the same context. Knowing my talents gives me the opp. ortunity to work on and further develop those aspects where I already have the advantage due to my talents."*

Additional reflections regarding the workshop and the concept of strengths in general

were related to the implementation of the workshop as part of the introductory preparation at the beginning of online learning at DOBA for *"students to be able to work on their strengths and to avoid their limitations".* One participant would recommend the workshop to all junior students at the start of a study programme, as *"it is a very specific form of cooperation requesting flexibility and the ability to adjust one to another, whereas it is about teamwork not group work, which unfortunately all students don't understand."* Other participants felt the duration and the scope of the workshop being somewhat inadequate suggesting a more gradual and in-depth preparation in terms of having several subsequent workshops (with more practical examples and guidelines) *"to learn more about the talents we didn't know we had".* One of them explained that *"the workshop was very short; hence it would be useful to divide it into theoretical (lecture) and practical part with concrete guidelines to work on team assignments (based on identified strengths and talents)".*

3.2 Teamwork evaluation

After the workshop participants were divided in teams and they worked together in one or several subsequent online courses. App. roximately three months after the workshop an evaluation survey was administered to assess the quality of team collaboration and the impact of the Strengths approch.

The overall experience in teams working on the Strengths approch (table 1, left column) was mostly very positive and excellent (*"Communication was smooth, and we were efficient in preparing the team assignments". "We all tried to keep our promises."*). Some argued that collaboration primarily depends on motivation and other personal attributes of team members (*"We who have just begun with our study programme were far more committed and devoted than those senior students already finishing the study programme."*). Others agreed that it was not the Strengths approch but the fact that team members had known each other that contributed to efficient collaboration and to positive overall experience (*"In my opinion, teams where members know each other very well, are more efficient."*). One of those who mentioned difficulties in team collaboration emphasised different perceptions of teamwork and group work as the main source of problems.

Next, we were interested to see how participants evaluated the team collaboration and team results in comparison with the period before applying for the Strengths project. Five participants reported the team collaboration and team results being much better (e.g. *"Due to good collaboration the results are also better and hence team members are more satisfied."*) and additional two participants reported the team collaboration and team results being slightly better than before the workshop. One of those two further explained: *"To me the result in terms of received grade is not the only indicator of an efficient team. I think it is even more important in what way you achieve the result. Whether you are exhausted after the meetings and you cannot even think about studying/working any longer, or the meetings lift you up and fill you with fresh energy. The result can even*

be the same in both cases, but the feeling is completely different." Two participants reported the team collaboration and team results being the same as before the workshop, which could be related to motivation as explained by one participant: *"I am lucky that I have been collaborating with highly motivated people, that way the results of the workshop have not significantly influenced our team outcomes."*

Further on, we dig deeper to investigate more specifically, what was the best part of team collaboration and how was it influenced by the Strengths approch (table 1, middle column). Participants emphasised the following outcomes as a direct impact of attending the workshop and applying the Strengths approch within teams: complementing each other (*"cooperation is easier because it is very clear who is good at something"*); better organization and division of tasks (*"because we approximately knew the advantages of individuals and how they can best contribute in a team"*); formulating realistic expectations towards individual team members; more efficient time management and being productive and efficient in general. Other participants also pointed out certain personal and team-level benefits. Perceived personal benefits were related to enhanced self-confidence, increased self-understanding (*"for me it was important to learn more about myself and to understand why I react the way I do"; "it is very useful because you get the chance to learn about yourself and others from a different perspective"*) and to the focus on strengths in general (*"usually we search for our weaknesses but here we kept focusing on our strengths and I think this was very productive"*). Beside the personal benefits they also recognised the impact of the Strengths approch on the aspects of team dynamics such as team spirit (*"it was about being aware that we were a team"*) and team synergy (*"each member contributes according to his strengths and it is the synergy of team members and their contributions that makes a team"; "the combination of strengths/talents within a team creates synergy; for the team to function efficiently, it is almost urgent to compose it according to a variety of strengths"*).

Participants were also asked about the conflicts and frictions within teams and how were they resolved (table 1, right column). Most participant reported no conflicts whatsoever (*"maybe because none of us was dominant wanting his suggestions to prevail"*), though few potential sources of initial conflicts were identified, such as: the mixed composition of teams (*"we had some initial problems because two members were assigned to our team who did not participate in the Strengths project and had different experiences and expectations regarding teamwork."*), different values and work-related attitudes (*"frictions occur when some members are less responsive and you are not even aware that you react in accordance with your talents, it is a kind of natural response"*); different expectations and norms regarding team communication and interaction (*"one member was not conscious about the other member's inability to participate in Skype sessions due to other obligations and time difference"*). All conflicts were quickly resolved by open discussion and by establishing the ground rules (*"during the second meeting we agreed on the ground rules of team collaboration and from that time the collaboration was excellent"*).

Almost all participants would recommend the Strengths project to their colleagues. One of them explained: *"In our team we really go along very well; if that is also the case in other teams, there is no reason not to recommend this approach."*).

Table 1: A summary of categorized answers to three key questions

Overall team experience[1]	Best aspect of team collaboration in relation to strengths[2]	Conflicts and frictions within teams[3]
• Very good, excellent collaboration • Influenced by motivation and characteristics of team members • Knowing each other is important • Confusion regarding differences between group work and teamwork	• Complementing each other • Better organization and division of tasks (based on advantages/strengths) • Realistic expectations towards individual team member • More efficient time management • Being productive and efficient • Personal benefits (self-confidence, self-understanding) • Team dynamics (team spirit, synergy)	• No conflict • Mixed composition of teams • Different values and work-related attitudes • Different perceptions and norms regarding communication and interaction

[1] What is your overall experience with teamwork within courses you took after you had participated in the Strengths project workshop?

[2] What was the best part of team collaboration and why? How was team collaboration influenced by your strengths and the strengths of other team members?

[3] Were there any frictions and conflicts in your team? Why did they occur and how were they resolved? Did you use your strengths while resolving conflicts?

3.3 Peer assessment

Peer assessment data were available for 17 teams at two distinct courses. Data were first quantitatively assessed by comparing the total team averages for two groups of teams (table 2). The scores reflect the perception of the whole team regarding the contribution of other team members to teamwork and the team assignments. Higher grade represents a more favourable team collaboration in terms of having all members equally contributing to team assignments. It is evident from Table 2 that Strengths-project teams did report about somewhat more favourable team collaboration than conventional teams, although the mean difference is not very prominent. Also, additional negative and/or positive points (differentiation of grades) were not assigned in neither of the Strengths-project teams, while this happened in more than one third of conventional teams. Differentiation of grades was a consequence of uneven team collaboration and unevenly distributed workload while working on team assignments.

Next, we analysed the qualitative descriptions regarding team behaviour and individuals' contributions to team assignments in three strengths-based teams. The key concepts

Table 2: Quantitative analysis of peer assessment surveys

Team type	Number of teams	M	SD	Differentiation of grades
Strengths-project teams	3	9.40	0.22	None
Conventional teams	14	9.00	0.21	In 5 teams

are summarised in Table 3. It is evident that positive evaluations prevail, and these are all relevant determinants of effective and efficient teamwork. However, qualitative evaluations cannot be directly attributed to the Strengths approch (as the students were not instructed to do so), so we cannot say if the positive outcomes of team collaboration reported in peer assessment surveys were in fact the consequence of the Strengths approch.

Table 3: Qualitative evaluation of team collaboration

Positive concepts	Negative concepts
• The quality of individual contributions (tasks) • Editing, revising and adjusting the individual tasks to prepare a coherent team solution • Active participation in discussions (team meetings), proposing suggestions and solutions • Keeping up with the timeline • Involved in solving communication barriers, initial conflicts • Good and efficient leadership • Taking initiative • Encouraging, motivating others • Responsible for the team synergy	• Irregular attendance at team meetings • Avoiding the final formatting of the assignment

4   Discussion

The aim of this research was to evaluate the impact of the Strengths pilot project on team collaboration and satisfaction of team members with teamwork, in order to assess the potential of such an approch and its application to all DOBA's master-level students. The focus was on investigating the benefits of the Strengths project on team behaviour, team processes and the perceived well-being of team members and not on team results (e.g. the quality of team assignments).

In general, we can conclude that participants' overall experience with the Strengths project was very positive. They reported both personal (e.g. self-confidence and enhanced self-understanding) and team-level benefits (e.g. complementing each other, organization and division of task, realistic expectations, creating synergy) of the project contributing to more efficient teamwork. In their opinion, participation in the Strengths project improved both team collaboration and team results.

These findings should be interpreted in the wider context of participants' personal characteristics that might have influenced the selection process. As participation was voluntary and a participation fee was required, we may assume that only intrinsically highly motivated students with strong aspirations "to learn more" and "to do better" applied for the project. In other words, the results might have been different if the project was also targeted at less motivated students who were not willing to invest their resources to increase the quality of their teamwork.

Motivation seems to be highly relevant issue, which also came out of the qualitative analysis. Some participants emphasised it was not the Strengths approch that contributed to efficient team collaboration but the fact that all members were highly motivated. Similarly, others pointed out that differences in motivation of team members was a significant barrier for efficient team collaboration, acting as a source of potential conflicts and disputes. We assume this was the case in one of the "mixed teams" where participants of the Strengths project were combined with other students. Dealing with less motivated students and with those who would rather follow the principles of group work could be quite difficult, especially in the context of self-managed virtual teams, where team leaders actually do not have the power/authority of a leader and do not possess the resources to either reward or punish individual team members. One possible way to increase the (extrinsic) motivation of students to participate equally and more efficiently within a team would be to include the assessment of one's team behaviour as a substantial part of the final grade. The existing form of the peer assessment survey could be further extended to focus more on the process factors and the personal characteristics of individual team members – not only on one's contribution to the team assignments.

Beside motivation, another important aspect of efficient team collaboration is the extent to which team members know each other. This seems particularly relevant for DOBA's online courses in duration of 5 to 6 weeks because having the personal connections already established from the very start helps the team move faster towards the performing phase of the Tuckman's model of team development (West, 2009), probably resulting in a more efficient team collaboration. This could be the reason for students often choosing to collaborate with people they know when they are given the chance to self-select in teams. In that respect, one participant in this research argued it was not the Strengths approch that contributed to efficient team collaboration but the fact that participants had known each other very well for a longer period of time. However, it needs to be emphasised that one key objective of the Strengths approch is to provide participants with the tools to learn about themselves and others to be able to adapt the subsequent team behaviour and team decisions to specific characteristics (strengths, talents) of each team member. The Strengths approch actually serves as a preparatory phase for team members to get to know each other better.

From peer assessment surveys (table 2) it is evident that team collaboration in strengths-based teams was perceived as somewhat better and more efficient than in

conventional teams. In other words, having highly motivated students prepared for teamwork by learning about strengths and how to use them efficiently seems to enhance team performance and team synergy, which may serve as an argument for the benefits of the Strengths approch. However, it needs to be emphasised that difference in perceived team performance between two types of teams was not very large. This means that conventional teams may also perform efficiently, even without strengths-based preparation, which could be the result of particular factors that have already been discussed (e.g. high motivation, established personal connections, self-selection in teams, shared understanding of the principles of teamwork, similar expectations and values). But at the same time, we observed that variation in the quality of team collaboration was somewhat higher among conventional teams – differentiation of grades for team assignments due to unequal collaboration was required in more than one third of conventional teams and in none of the strengths-based teams. Although these findings are based on limited number of teams and should thus be interpreted with caution, the indication of the potential benefits of the Strengths approch cannot be ignored.

Despite high satisfaction of participants with the workshop and with the information on how to apply individual's strengths for more efficient team collaboration, some participants felt the scope and intensity of the workshop was insufficient. They suggested having several subsequent workshops to receive more elaborated guidelines about the use and exploitation of particular strengths. However, if the Strengths approch will remain as an extra benefit for those who want to learn more, then it is worth reconsidering the potential adaptations, for example in terms of having a more in-depth preparation and introducing an advisory expert whom participants could consult with during the process of team collaboration. But if the Strengths approch will become mandatory and will be expanded to all master-level students, as it was suggested by some participants, then it is reasonable to continue with the concept of the pilot project, in order not to overwhelm the students with too much information and additional activities.

Beside the small sample size and specific personal characteristics of participants, there were some other limitations of this pilot project. First, only one of four strengths-based teams was a "complete team", composed only of participants of the Strengths project. Other teams were mixed, and it is questionable to what extent can the team collaboration base on the concept of strengths, when the non-project members do not have the knowledge and skills about applying and using their own strengths and talents. And second, participants were systematically divided into strengths-based teams only for the first course after the implementation of the workshop, which may have been insufficient to obtain any longer-term effects. If permanent strengths-based teams were designed for several subsequent courses, it would also be possible to observe the impact of the Strengths approch on objective criteria (e.g. final grades for team assignments), which has been demonstrated in research by Asplund et al. (2015). Now,

we could only observe participants' perceptions, insights and their evaluations of team collaboration and team efficiency.

5 Conclusion

We can conclude that the strengths-based approch serving as a preparation of students for their team collaboration, did prove beneficial and contributed to participants' favourable perceptions regarding their team behaviour, team efficiency, satisfaction and well-being of team members. Nevertheless, we are aware that those positive results were at least partly being influenced by participants' personal characteristics (e.g. high intrinsic motivation) and not only by the Strengths approch itself.

However, the strengths-based approch has the potential to gradually replace DOBA's existing approch of composing teams according to Belbin's typology of team roles. The key advantage of the Strengths approch is not in composing teams with complementary strengths/talents but in coaching the students on how to apply their strengths to facilitate team collaboration. Due to organizational and other demands it would probably not be possible to introduce the Strengths approch as a mandatory activity for all DOBA's master-level students, but certain measures can be adopted that would contribute to higher (voluntary) participation rate, such as: (1) starting with the project at the very beginning of a school year; (b) forming permanent teams of project-only participants that will collaborate at several subsequent courses; (c) enabling each team to consult with an expert advisor (coach) regarding any potential difficulties during their teamwork (e.g. once or twice); (d) revising the peer assessment survey so that more focus would be given to assessing the teamwork skills and personal attributes of team members (which could motivate students to become better team players, e.g. by applying for the Strengths project).

In that respect, we see the optimal model of team collaboration at DOBA consisting of the following steps, assuming there were no organizational and financial restrictions undermining its implementation: (1) applying the Strengths approch to all master-level students in the preparatory phase at the beginning of the school year; (2) forming complete strengths-based teams at least for the duration of the first 3-4 subsequent (mandatory) courses; (3) giving the students the necessary supp. ort, e.g. to consult with a coach 1-2 times per course regarding team collaboration; (4) stimulating the quality of one's team performance by reflecting and evaluating several aspects of team collaboration at each course (e.g. contribution to team assignments, contribution to favourable team dynamics and personal qualities as a team member) that would contribute a significant share to the overall grade for team assignments.

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13 Students' Virtual Teamwork: A Case Study of DOBA Business School

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Abstract: *The article presents the case of DOBA Business School and virtual teamwork. In the past 5 years, DOBA Business School has been closely monitoring the development of different skills and competences among their students. After each course students fill out anonymous questionnaires where different segments of the course are evaluated. However, for our research, we use only data related to the satisfaction with their teamwork from the mentioned questionnaires. We investigate the possible differences with the satisfaction of virtual teamwork among bachelor and master's degree students as well as among students from Slovenia, Croatia and Serbia in the academic years 2013/14 to 2017/18.*

Keywords: *virtual teamwork, higher education, communication skills, digital competences*

Virtualno timsko delo študentov: študija primera DOBA Fakultete

Povzetek: *Članek predstavlja primer DOBA Fakultete in virtualno timsko delo. Zadnjih pet let DOBA Fakulteta natančno spremlja razvoj različnih spretnosti in kompetenc svojih študentov. Po zaključku vsakega predmeta študentje izpolnijo anonimne vprašalnike kjer ocenijo različne segmente izvajanja predmeta. Raziskava zajema podatke, ki se nanašajo na njihovo zadovoljstvo s timskim delom iz omenjenih vprašalnikov. Raziskava prikazuje morebitne razlike pri zadovoljstvu s timskim delom med dodiplomskimi in podiplomskimi študenti ter med študenti iz Slovenije, Hrvaške in Srbije v študijskih letih med 2013/14 in 2017/18*

Ključne besede: *virtualno timsko delo, visokošolsko izobraževanje, komunikacijske spretnosti, digitalne kompetence*

1 Introduction

In a modern business world, where success is based on creating as many innovative ideas as possible, one of the key competences is teamwork. Different authors investigate the topic of teamwork since it is difficult to arrive to a single definition of teamwork since there are several different concepts of teamwork.

The OECD (2015) states that collaborative problem solving is a critical and necessary skill used in education and in the workforce. According to Scarnati (2001), teamwork is "a cooperative process that allows ordinary people to achieve extraordinary results".

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Haas and Mortensen (2016) also explain that today's teams are different from the teams of the past, which means that they are more diverse, dispersed, digital, and dynamic. Harris and Harris (1996) define teamwork as a work group or unit with a common purpose through which members develop mutual relationships for the achievement of goals/tasks.

In addition, the European Union, through its Europe 2020 strategy, works to straighten key competences, knowledge and skills by promoting a variety of learning approaches and contexts, in a lifelong learning perspective, which also includes teamwork. looking at different researches and strategies in the past years, one can see there is still a lack of teamwork competences in the work force.

Teamwork is becoming an increasingly important part of our everyday lives; and not only in education, as most jobs require some degree of teamwork. There are only a few jobs where an individual works completely independently from everybody else. In order to succeed in today's world, social skills (communication, collaboration, management, conflict solving, creative problem solving, etc.) are exceptionally important (Ašanin Gole, 2017).

DOBA Business School is aware of the benefits and advantages of teamwork and has therefore actively included and implemented teamwork in study programmes. Developing teamwork is also one of the seven core values of DOBA Business School (DOBA Business School, 2018).

1.1 The way to virtual teams

(Virtual) teamwork or virtual collaboration is one of the key competencies needed if we wish to be competitive in the labour market. Virtual teamwork in education means that the team members use a virtual platform and online communication tools for all teamwork activities.

The study programmes at DOBA Business School are implemented fully online, which poses quite a few challenges to the organisation of teamwork and to ensuring the effectiveness, quality, and success of virtual teamwork, especially if students reside in different time zones, are more inclined towards individual work or lack the motivation to study, even though optimal conditions have been ensured. Cottrill (2013) states that being equipped with even the most advanced technologies is not enough to make a virtual team effective, since the internal group dynamics and external support mechanisms must also be present for a team to succeed in the virtual world.

The Institute for the future (IFTF) and the University of Phoenix Research Institute also defined Virtual collaboration[1] as one of the key skills for the future workforce (Davies et al., 2011).

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[1] Ability to work productively, drive engagement, and demonstrate presence as a member of a virtual team.

1.2 DOBA Business School and its study programmes

DOBA Business School is a private business school and an established higher education institution for online learning in the region of South East Europe. DOBA Business School implements undergraduate and postgraduate programmes as well as research from the field of applied social studies (DOBA Business School, 2018).

The advantage of the offered study programmes is innovative learning with a global perspective. Instead of classical academic approaches, the study process is active, with the interaction between students and professors, which leads to the development of personal and professional competences. The advanced critical thinking and world's best study practices, networking, and partnerships on a local as well as a regional and international level enable students to develop unique abilities and capabilities (DOBA Fakulteta, 2018b).

DOBA Business School was the first business school in Slovenia that realised the need of employed people who were interested in seeking available and flexible ways of furthering their education. Therefore, DOBA developed its own online study model, with no direct contact between the students and professors in the classroom. A fully online study programme is one of the greatest advantages for DOBA's students during their studies. In addition to the UNIQUe international accreditation, DOBA Business School has also received the EOCCS certification, the first higher education institution in Slovenia and the broader region to do so. This validates the high international standards of the online study programmes at DOBA Business School (DOBA Fakulteta, 2018b).

DOBA Business School offers the following bachelor and master's degree programmes:

- Business Management Bachelor's Degree Programme;
- Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations Bachelor's Degree Programme;
- Tourism Operations and Management Bachelor's Degree Programme since 2016/2017 study year;
- Management in Social and Education Sector Bachelor's Degree Programme since 2016/2017 study year;
- Lifelong Learning Management Bachelor's Degree Programme until 2017/2018 study year;
- Organisation and Management of Social Sector Bachelor's Degree Programme until 2017/2018;
- International Business Management Master's Degree Programme;
- Marketing and Sales Master's Degree Programme since 2015/2016 study year
- Lifelong Learning Management Master's Degree Programme until 2016/2017 study year;
- Organisation and Management of Social Sector Master's Degree Programme until 2016/2017 study year;
- Innovation Management in Social and Education Sector Master's Degree Programme since 2016/2017 study year;

- Management of Smart Cities Master's Degree Programme since 2017/2018 study year.

DOBA Business School offers various programmes in Slovenia, Croatia and Serbia. The programmes in foreign markets (Croatia and Serbia) were offered after they were established in Slovenia. Some of the programmes started at the same time in different markets (for example the Tourism Operations and Management bachelor's degree programme). Some of the study programmes are offered only in Slovenia (for example the Management in Social and Education Sector bachelor's degree programme). In Table 1 the numbers of students in different programmes in different markets are presented for the last 5 academic years (from 2013/2014 to 2017/2018), the time period they were offered in the different markets.

Table 1: Number of enrolled students by courses in the academic years 2013/2014 to 2017/18

	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18
BACHELOR'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN SLOVENIA					
Business Management	233	204	232	276	235
Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations	155	140	146	162	156
Tourism Operations and Management	/	/	/	21	38
Management in Social and Education Sector	/	/	/	44	72
Lifelong Learning Management	42	23	28	11	5
Organisation and Management of Social Sector	135	95	72	35	15
Total students in Slovenia (bachelor)	*565*	*462*	*478*	*549*	*521*
MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN SLOVENIA					
International Business Management	76	64	43	32	40
Marketing and Sales	/	/	24	40	36
Lifelong Learning Management	24	12	10	4	/
Organisation and Management of Social Sector	29	24	15	3	/
Innovation Management in Social and Education Sector	/	/	/	13	23
Management of Smart Cities	/	/	/	/	13
Total students in Slovenia (master)	*129*	*100*	*92*	*92*	*112*
BACHELOR'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN CROATIA					
Business Management	/	/	38	67	102
Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations	48	95	131	136	124
Tourism Operations and Management	/	/	/	22	45
Total students in Croatia (bachelor)	*48*	*95*	*169*	*225*	*271*
MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN CROATIA					
International Business Management	37	31	42	28	24
Marketing and Sales	/	/	/	14	20
Total students in Croatia (master)	*37*	*31*	*42*	*42*	*44*
BACHELOR'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN SERBIA					
Business Management	91	50	34	35	41
Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations	/	10	24	30	31
Total students in Serbia (bachelor)	*91*	*60*	*58*	*65*	*72*
MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN SERBIA					
International Business Management	23	7	11	11	15
Total students in Serbia (master)	*23*	*7*	*11*	*11*	*15*

Source: collected data from DOBA Business School (DOBA Fakulteta, 2015, 2017); own calculations.

Most of the students at DOBA Business School are employed individuals (81 %), with 16 % of them working in non-profit organisations. The average age of the students is between 25 and 45 years and 61 % of them are women. DOBA students are highly motivated to finish their studies successfully; their main motivational factor is to gain a higher degree (25 %) and to get useful knowledge with practical insights (DOBA Fakulteta, 2017). Since they decide to study online, they have highly developed digital skills.

1.3 The way to implement virtual teamwork at DOBA Business School

Modern technologies, globalisation and internationalisation are reasons why DOBA Business School implemented virtual teamwork as one of the innovative learning approaches into the curriculum. The courses in each programme are delivered in an online mode. DOBA Business School is using the virtual learning environment, Blackboard, a learning management system (LMS). Blackboard offers more than simple classroom interaction, it supports the entire education experience enabling educators to not only interact, but truly engage students in learning (Blackboard, 2018).

The online learning model at DOBA Business School is a supported online distance-learning model. During the online courses, the students are supported by professors, online tutors, as well as programme managers regarding the organisation of their studies. It has a constructivist learning approach, with collaborative learning and problem-based learning. One of its key characteristics is the continuous assessment of students with different study activities and tasks each week, as well as virtual meetings and online exams. The online learning model is a practice-oriented approach based on competence development.

DOBA Business School has been closely monitoring the development of different skills and competences among their students for the last past 5 years. Key competences needed in the business world and developed during their studies at DOBA are teamwork as well as communication and leadership skills.

Since the students come from different backgrounds (educational as well as work field), the Programme Managers prepare them for the specifics of teamwork (especially of virtual teamwork, which is essential for online learning). Before the beginning of their studies, the students get all the information about the characteristics of virtual teamwork:

- On the first day of their studies, the features and tools for a successful teamwork are presented in face-to-face meetings as well as in online meetings.
- Through the 2-week long seminar, *Introduction to studies at DOBA Business School,* they learn how to use different tools for successful virtual teamwork.
- The guidelines for virtual teamwork, prepared by Programme Managers, are given to students and are available to them throughout their studies. Also new findings

and discoveries for better teamwork, especially virtual teamwork, are presented to the students at the beginning of each new academic year.
- For master's degree students some additional activities for successful teamwork are prepared:
    - Using the Belbin test, they have to test their team role during the *Introduction to studies at DOBA Business School* seminar where they are divided into teams during their studies according to their roles.
    - Programme Managers provide detailed guidelines for virtual teamwork and those guidelines are given to students. Included in the guidelines is information for the organisation of team meetings and the preparation of detailed team reports after each meeting.

The online learning model at DOBA Business School provides students with different technical tools for successful online studies as well as for successful online teamwork. Some tools are implemented in the Blackboard virtual learning environment and some are offered outside the Blackboard virtual learning environment as well. All the tools are free of charge for the students and can be used with no limits.

The following tools have been used during the past years:

- Chat was used until 2015/2016 and it was implemented in Blackboard and used for synchronous written communication among team members.
- Wiki was used until 2015/2016 and it was implemented in Blackboard and used for creating team assignments.
- OneDrive has been used from 2016/2017 and replaced Wiki. The tool is not implemented in Blackboard. It is part of Office 365 and is used for sharing documents and creating team assignments where all team members can access and write on the assignment at the same time.
- Yammer is used when students are working in international teams. It is not implemented in Blackboard. It is part of Office 365 and used for sharing documents and written communication among team members.
- Team forums are implemented in Blackboard and used for asynchronous written communication among team members, professors and online mentors.
- Blackboard Collaborate is implemented in Blackboard and used for synchronous written, audio and video communication among team members, professors and online mentors with the purpose for sharing screens, documents, etc.
- Skype for Business has been used from 2016/2017 and replaced Chat. It is not implemented in Blackboard. It is part of Office 365 and used for synchronous written, audio and video communication among team members.

The article will present the case of DOBA Business School and virtual teamwork. We will investigate the possible differences with the satisfaction of virtual teamwork among bachelor and master's degree students as well as among students from Slovenia, Croatia and Serbia. During the past few years, DOBA Business Schools has also implemented different pedagogical improvements, tools and instruments for a better virtual teamwork

experience, because at the beginning of the studies students have no or very limited experience with teamwork, especially with virtual teamwork. We anticipate that these improvements will have a positive effect on virtual teamwork satisfaction.

2 Methods used for investigating student's virtual teamwork satisfaction

In our paper, we will focus only on online programmes and the virtual teamwork needed to complete the programmes. We have been collecting the data related to teamwork for the last 5 years.

The sample comprises all bachelor and master's degree students who were enrolled in the programmes for the last 5 academic years (from 2013/2014 to 2017/2018). Numbers of enrolled students are presented in Table 1. The response rate of students filling out the questionnaires differs among study levels and the study years. For bachelor's degree programmes, the response rate is from 45, 6 % to 58, 8 %, and for master's degree programmes from 38, 1 % to 52, 7%.

Throughout their studies, different questionnaires serving different purposes are given to students to monitor their satisfaction with the implementation of each course. The satisfaction of students after each course is monitored with an anonymous questionnaire. One of the sub-questions is related to the satisfaction of the students' virtual teamwork. For the purpose of this article, we collected only that data for the last 5 years, which we will compare in different aspects. Students evaluate their satisfaction with the teamwork on a scale from 1 to 7 (where is 7 being the highest score).

We also looked at the connection and correlation of the satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and the satisfaction with the course in general in Slovenian, Croatian and Serbian bachelor and master's degree programmes in the academic year 2017/2018 and calculated the standard deviation and Pearson's coefficient.

3 Research and results

The satisfaction with teamwork that is presented is calculated as the average satisfaction with teamwork during all courses of one programme during one academic year. The data is presented in Graph 1 to Graph 5, for each country where DOBA carries out their programmes (Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia), presented separately by different study levels (bachelor and master's degree) for the last 5 years.

The satisfaction with teamwork within different courses among DOBA's students is very high (over 6,0 on a scale from 1 to 7, where 7 is being the highest score). It differs during the observed past 5 years, but we can see a trend in rising numbers. Students in the master's degree programmes are even more satisfied with their teamwork (on average the scores are 0,1 to 0,2 average points higher than for bachelor's degree programmes). As Programme Managers, where we are in daily contact with the students, we noticed that the master's degree students are more pro-active, independent, self-disciplined and

motivated. Due to the above information, the master's degree students are able to work in teams more efficiently and with greater satisfaction (compared to bachelor's degree students).
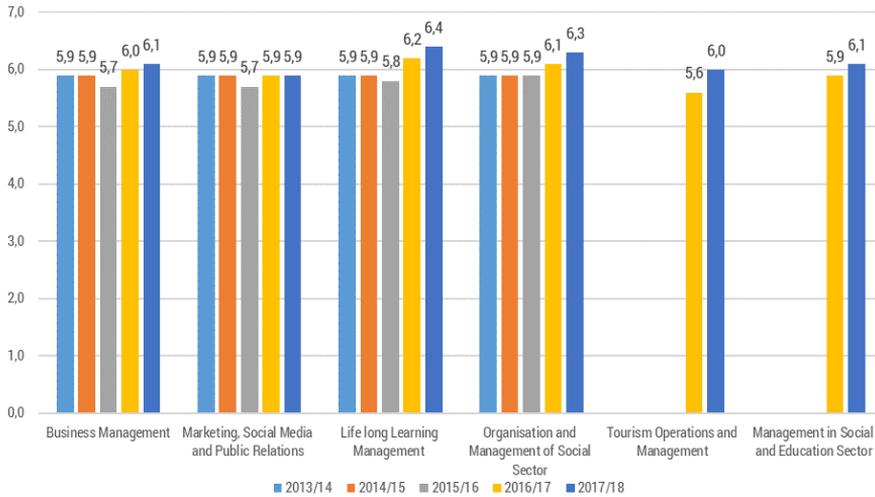
Graph 1: Satisfaction with teamwork during all courses of different bachelor's degree programmes in Slovenia form academic year 2013/2014 to 2017/2018

Source: collected data of online questionnaires after each course; own calculations.
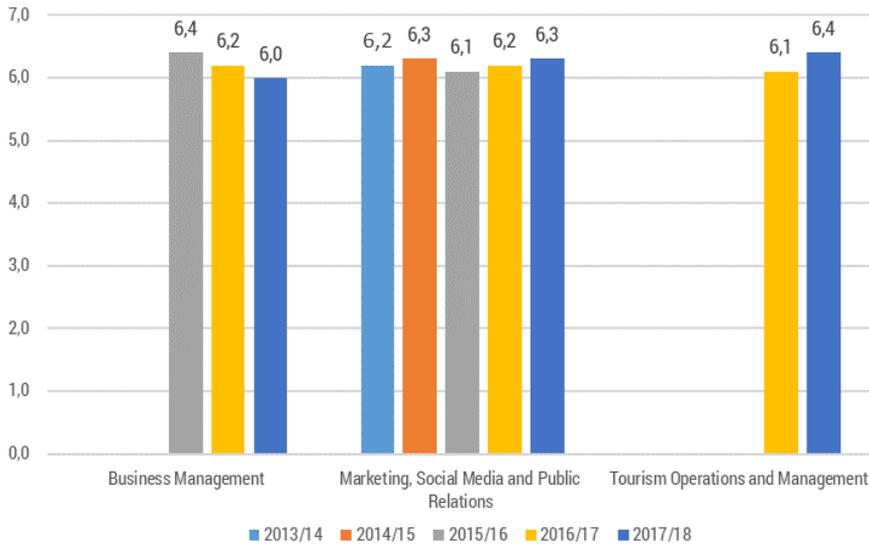
Graph 2: Satisfaction with teamwork during all courses of different bachelor's degree programmes in Croatia form academic year 2013/2014 to 2017/2018

Source: collected data of online questionnaires after each course; own calculations.
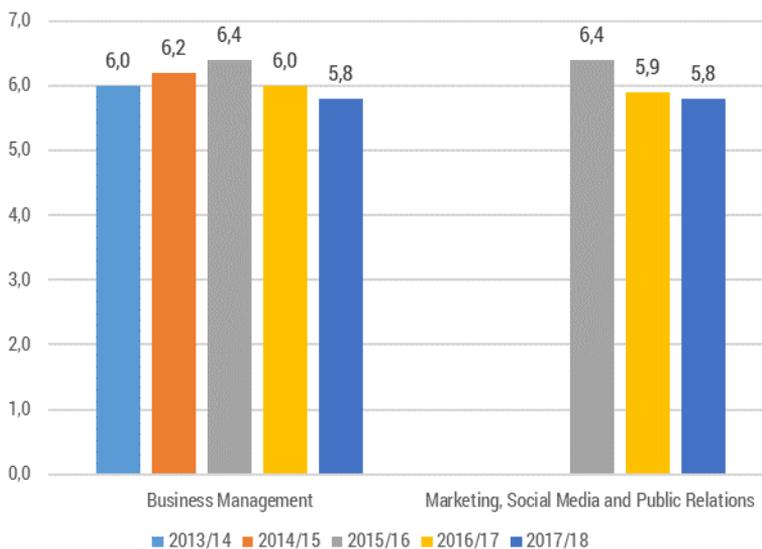
Graph 3: Satisfaction with teamwork during all courses of different bachelor's degree programmes in Serbia form academic year 2013/2014 to 2017/2018

Source: collected data of online questionnaires after each course; own calculations.

Graph 4: Satisfaction with teamwork during all courses of different master's degree programmes in Slovenia form academic year 2013/2014 to 2017/2018

Source: collected data of online questionnaires after each course; own calculations.

When we compare bachelor and master's degree students, master's degree students have already earned a higher degree, work in leadership positions and have more experiences with teamwork from their current work-environment. Our conclusions are

based on the profile of enrolled master's degree students from the past years. Due to the above information, they are more committed to team processes, leadership and have good accountability to the team and the project. They are aware of team processes and new ideas, as well as the concept of shared decision-making and problem solving.
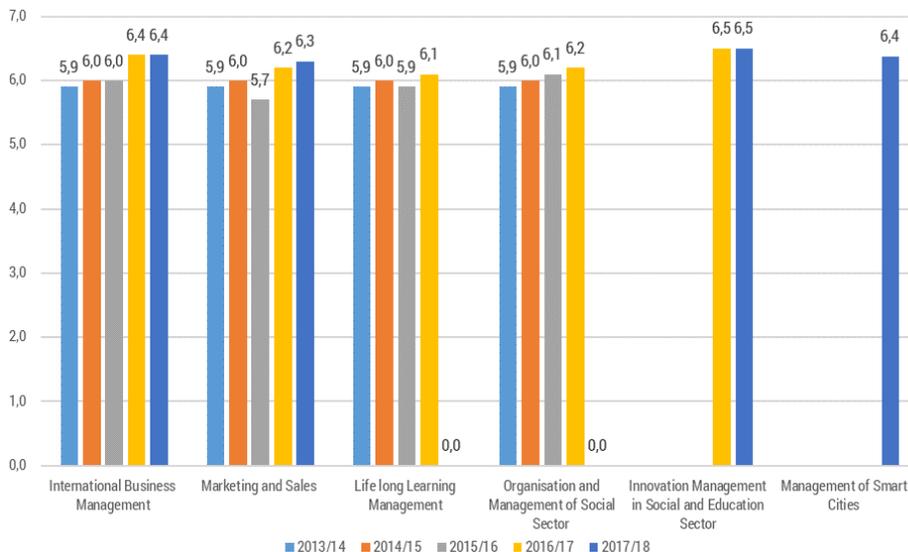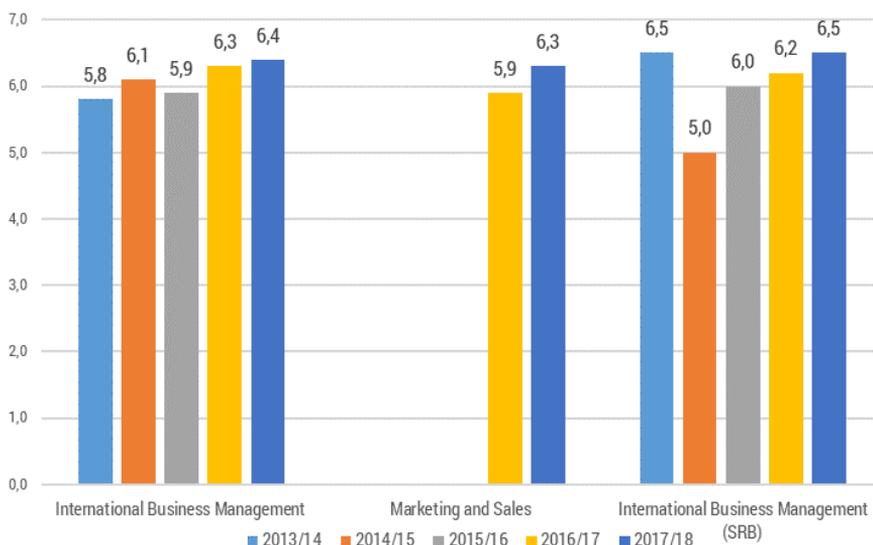

Graph 5: Satisfaction with teamwork during all courses of different master's degree programmes in Croatia and Serbia together form academic year 2013/2014 to 2017/2018

Source: collected data of online questionnaires after each course; own calculations.

DOBA Business School organises and prepares the courses so that students of different generations and programmes can take the same course. Because of this, the groups and teams vary form course to course (this is the case of bachelor's degree courses). Hence, the satisfaction with teamwork at the bachelor's degree study level is a bit lower than at the master's degree level.

DOBA Business School offers study programmes for different professions. Each programme enrols students with different personal characteristics and professional backgrounds, which also has an effect of their perception of teamwork. Bachelor's degree programmes with social, educational and lifelong learning aspects (such as the Lifelong Learning Management Bachelor's Degree Programme and the Organisation and Management of Social Sector Bachelor's Degree Programme) have a higher satisfaction rating with teamwork among bachelor's degree programmes. This data reflects only Slovenian students, since the above-mentioned programmes are carried out only in the Slovene market. Before the enrolled in the programmes, the students had already developed good social skills and competences, as well as interpersonal skills, which includes the ability to discuss issues openly with team members, be honest, trustworthy,

and supportive and show empathy, respect and commitment to the team and to its individuals.

We can notice a slight fall in satisfaction with the teamwork in the Business Management bachelor's degree programme in Croatia (in the last 3 years it went down from 6,4 to 6,0). Based on the comments of students in the questionnaires and during the talks and interviews with their Programme Managers we can conclude that this slight drop in satisfaction is mostly based on the problem of inactive students during the courses. In addition, a drop of satisfaction with the teamwork among bachelor's degree students from Serbia is noticed. Students in Serbia prefer to work individually, not in teams; they also often have struggles with the team roles (and possible team hierarchy) and are not willing to receive constructive criticism. This aspect of Serbian students reflects in the students' satisfaction with teamwork.

We took a closer look at the programmes of DOBA Business School that were offered in all markets (Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia) in the academic year 2017/2018. These were the following programmes: Business Management bachelor's degree programme, Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations bachelor's degree programme, and International Business Management master's degree programme Serbia. With the same programme base, we can better compare if there are any differences among the responses regarding students' teamwork satisfaction

Table 2: The average satisfaction with teamwork at courses (where 7 is the best grade and 1 is the worst) for selected DOBA's study programmes in the academic year 2017/2018 and standard deviation that refer to teamwork satisfaction.

Study programmes	Average	Variance	Standard deviation
Business Management Slovenia (n=672)	6,1	1,881	1,371
Business Management Croatia (n=425)	6,0	2,208	1,486
Business Management Serbia (n=136)	5,8	3,081	1,755
Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations Slovenia (n=429)	5,9	2,196	1,482
Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations Croatia (n= 428)	6,3	1,732	1,316
Marketing, Social Media and Public Relations Serbia (n=82)	5,5	4,517	2,125
International Business Management Slovenia (n=114)	6,4	0,790	0,889
International Business Management Croatia (n=82)	6,4	1,138	1,067
International Business Management Serbia (n=34)	6,5	1,190	1,091

Source: collected data of online questionnaires after each course; own calculations.

The standard deviation for the sub-question in the questionnaires about teamwork in Slovenian and Croatian bachelor's degree programmes is around 1,4 (see Table 2), that means that the average grades differ +/- 1,4 from the average grade. The standard deviation for the sub-question in the questionnaires about teamwork in Serbian bachelor's degree programmes is up to 2,1, that means that the average grades differ +/- 2,1 from the average grade. Therefore, we can conclude, that the bachelor's degree students in Slovenia and Croatia evaluate their satisfaction with teamwork in the courses in the selected programmes similar, the bachelor's degree students from Serbia

differ more their evaluation regarding teamwork satisfaction. As mentioned before, students in Serbia prefer to work individually, not in teams. On the other hand, when good and effective teamwork is present, that has a positive effect on satisfaction with teamwork. In this way, we can explain that the teamwork satisfaction differs more in Serbian bachelor's degree programmes.

The standard deviation for the sub-question in the questionnaires about teamwork in Slovenian master's degree program is around 0,9 (see Table 2) that means that the average grades differ +/- 0,9 from the average grade. The standard deviation for the sub-question in the questionnaires about teamwork in Croatian and Serbian master's degree programmes is around 1,1, that means that the average grades differ +/- 1,1 from the average grade. Therefore, we can conclude, that the master's degree students in Slovenia evaluate their satisfaction with teamwork in their courses in the selected programmes similarly, while the master's degree students from Croatia and Serbia differ more when evaluating their teamwork satisfaction. We can conclude that in general, the students were satisfied with teamwork in their courses in the International Business Management master's degree programme.

The standard deviation for the sub-question in the questionnaires about teamwork in bachelor's degree programmes in all markets is higher than in master's degree programmes (up to 2,1; see Table 2). That means that the average grades regarding teamwork satisfaction differ more at the bachelor's degree study level than at the master's degree study level. As already mentioned, students at the bachelor's degree level have fewer teamwork experiences and there is the additional problem of inactive students during the courses. That influences the students' satisfaction with teamwork during the course. On the other hand, most of the teams work well and effectively, and the satisfaction with their teamwork is good. That is how we can explain that teamwork satisfaction differs more at the bachelor's degree study level.

We also measured with correlation coefficients of how strong a relationship is between two variables in our collected data. For our analyses, we used the Pearson's correlation measurement of the linear correlation between two sets of data. The sets of data we measured were: Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and Satisfaction with the course in total. We used the data that was collected with an anonymous questionnaire distributed after each course in the academic year 2017/2018. We used data for all bachelor and master's degree programmes in all markets (Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia).

The results of the correlation coefficient are presented in Table 3. The range of the Pearson's correlation coefficient is from -1 to 1. Our results are as following:

- Variables in Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and Satisfaction with the course in total in the Slovenia, Croatian and Serbian bachelor's degree programmes indicate a very strong positive correlation, since the Pearson's correlation coefficient is 0,98 and 0,99 (or 98 % and 99 %).

- Variables in Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and Satisfaction with the course in total in the Slovenia, Croatian and Serbian master's degree programmes indicate a very strong positive correlation as well, since the Pearson's correlation coefficient is again 0,98 and 0,99 (or 98 % and 99 %).

Table 3: Pearson's coefficient for selected sets of data for DOBA's study programmes in the academic year 2017/2018 by different levels and markets

Sets of data compared	Pearson's coefficient
Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and satisfaction with the course in total at Slovene bachelor's degree programmes	0,98
Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and satisfaction with the course in total at Croatian bachelor's degree programmes	0,98
Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and satisfaction with the course in total at Serbian bachelor's degree programmes	0,99
Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and satisfaction with the course in total at Slovene master's degree programmes	0,98
Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and satisfaction with the course in total at Croatian master's degree programmes	0,98
Satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and satisfaction with the course in total at Serbian master's degree programmes	0,99

Source: collected data of online questionnaires after each course; own calculations.

Our studied variables are connected and correlated (based on the positive Pearson's correlation coefficient). We cannot discuss the influences of one variable to another, since the Pearson's correlation coefficient does not explain that.

4   Discussion: steps to improve teamwork satisfaction

During the past few study years, Programme Managers have noticed through the students' interviews as well as comments in different questionnaires that especially bachelor's degree students struggle while working in teams. The students complain about the inactivity of some team members, they often do not know how to start working in teams, they have troubles with the communication among team members (mostly how to organise themselves, how to actively listen to the concerns and needs of team members and evaluate their contribution). In the past, they also had trouble working in wikis which were used as a tool for preparing the team assignments, etc.

During the past 5 years, DOBA Business Schools has also implemented different pedagogical improvements, tools and instruments. Due to all above-mentioned reasons, DOBA Business School presented the following improvements in the study year 2016/17:

- OneDrive - a new tool for easier preparation of team assignments (all members at the same time);
- Skype for Business - a new tool for easier communication (written, audio and video);
- new, detailed guidelines for virtual teamwork were given to bachelor's degree students;

- different webinars about virtual teamwork were organised;
- good practices of virtual teamwork were presented to students as well as to professors;
- special trainings for professors and online mentors about how to monitor teamwork, how to mediate among team members and how to motivate them to successfully work in teams.

These improvements have had a positive effect on virtual teamwork, which the collected data from students in the bachelor's degree programmes in Slovenia and from most of the Croatian bachelor's degree programmes shows. These improvements had the highest effect on all students' satisfaction with teamwork at the master's degree study level, where the average satisfaction increased up to 0,4 points (the highest increase of 0,4 points was in the Marketing and Sales Master's Degree Programme).

After each course, Programme Managers have an interview with professors with the purpose of evaluating the courses. Based on these interviews we can conclude that a high satisfaction with teamwork leads to successful teamwork and a higher quality of team assignments.

Looking at virtual teamwork at DOBA Business School, we can say that at the beginning of their studies, students have no or very little virtual teamwork experiences. During their studies, they develop these skills and are able to be successful in their teamwork. In addition, the perception of teamwork among students changes during their studies, as they gain new experiences during each course. As Programme Managers, where we are in contact not only with students but also with graduates, we notice that graduates are especially thankful for the teamwork experience during their studies. They highly evaluate their teamwork competences, which help them to perform better within their team in their work-environment[2].

5 Conclusion

For successful and an effective teamwork, the following key attributes are needed (Luca & Tarricone, 2001; Tarricone & Luca, 2002): commitment to team success and shared goals, interdependence, interpersonal skills, open communication and positive feedback, appropriate team composition, commitment to team processes, and leadership and accountability. These key attributes are critical to the goal of virtual teamwork at DOBA Business School.

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[2] Six months after graduation, all graduates (bachelor and master's degree) are sent an anonymous questionnaire regarding different aspects of their lives and careers (follow up analysis). They also evaluate their competences: professional knowledge and competences, digital competences, communication skills and competences, entrepreneurship and leadership, innovation and personal development. Communication skills and competences also include the teamwork skills which the master's degree graduates in the survey in the academic year 2017/2018 evaluated in average with the mark 6,3 on a scale from 1 to 7, where 7 is being the highest score (DOBA Fakulteta, 2018a). The data of the follow up analysis for the bachelor's degree graduates in the academic year 2017/2018 is yet not available.

As presented in the article, differences of perception and successful teamwork appear among DOBA's students. Students at the master's degree programmes are more satisfied with their teamwork. They are more pro-active, independent, self-disciplined and motivated and due to that, they are able to work in teams more efficiently and with greater satisfaction (compared to bachelor's degree students).

In the survey, we also noticed the drop of the satisfaction with teamwork among bachelor's degree students from Serbia. Slovenian and Croatian bachelor's degree students' cultures are based on work ethics more alike what reflects in their teamwork. On the other hand, students in Serbia prefer to work individually, have struggles with team roles and are not willing to receive constructive criticism. This is also due to their cultural background and national characteristics. These cultural and national differences are not noticed among master's degree students. Due to their higher educational degrees and that they are working in leading positions with a lot of leadership experiences as well as teamwork experiences, they are willing and able to work successfully in teams and therefore their teamwork satisfaction is higher.

We also looked at the connection and correlation of the satisfaction with teamwork during the courses and the satisfaction with the course in general in Slovenian, Croatian and Serbian bachelor and master's degree programmes in the academic year 2017/2018. There is a very strong positive connection and correlation between these two sets of data among all the programmes (since the Pearson's correlation coefficient is 0,98 and 0,99).

The Programme Managers and DOBA Business School will continue to contribute to a better teamwork experience for our students as well as seek improvements in virtual teamwork. Already, in the academic year 2018/2019, the following improvements for a better virtual teamwork were suggested and approved:

- Through the 2-week long seminar *Introduction to studies at DOBA Business School,* we adapted teamwork activities for successful virtual teamwork from the content point of view.
- The guidelines for virtual teamwork have been adjusted also for bachelor's degree students (they are more detailed and include guidelines for organisation of team meetings and preparation of detailed team reports after each meeting).
- When possible, students will be put in groups and teams with same colleagues during more courses so that all phases of teamwork can evolve more gradually and are not "rushed" in the period of one course.

Results presented in this paper can be used by management of DOBA Business School for better understanding of students' virtual teamwork satisfaction as well as professors while preparing their online courses and teamwork activities.

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14 Perceiving Leadership in Project Management Courses

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Abstract: *We tried to find out an answer to the question: do students understand leadership and go beyond understanding and start practising it in a complex individual assignment that simulates real-life situation in project management? Our goal was to find out if the provided course structure and materials offer enough foundation for essential concepts to adopt knowledge and understanding of the so-called hard project management skills versus the soft skills, leadership. The analysis among international students from Slovenia, Turkey and Macedonia was based on a critical review of individual in-line assignments by a professional project manager and teacher. It showed that approximately half of the students correctly identified lack of leadership as the main reason for project failure. They mostly focused on problems with defining project requirement, planning and measuring performance. Only one in five students demonstrated leadership skills and acted as a leader. This is a clear sign that hard management skills are easier to master than leadership skills.*

Keywords: *leadership, project management, distance learning, management skills*

Dojemanje pomena vodstvenih sposobnosti v predmetih projektnega menedžmenta

Povzetek: *Poskusili smo poiskati odgovor na vprašanje, ali študenti razumejo vodenje in ali so sposobni narediti korak več od razumevanja in vodenje uporabiti v zahtevni individualni nalogi, ki simulira življenjsko situacijo v projektnem menedžmentu. Ugotoviti smo želeli, če nudijo tečaj in materiali, ki smo jih pripravili, dovolj osnovnih konceptov in temeljev, da razumejo in znajo uporabiti tako imenovana trda znanja projektnega menedžmenta v primerjavi z mehkimi znanji vodenja. Analiza, ki smo jo izvedli med študenti mednarodnega študija iz Slovenije, Turčije in Makedonije je temeljila na kritičnem pregledu individualnih on-line nalog, ki jih je izvedel učitelj, sicer tudi poklicni projektni menedžer. Izkazalo se je, da je približno polovica študentov pravilno ugotovila, da je za neuspeh projekta krivo pomanjkanje vodstvenih sposobnosti. Večinoma so se osredotočili na težave pri definiranju zahtev projekta, načrtovanju in merjenju uspešnosti. Le eden izmed petih študentov pa je pokazal lastne vodstvene sposobnosti in tako tudi ukrepal. Tako smo pokazali, da je lažje obvladati trda menedžerska znanja kot osvojiti vodstvene sposobnosti, zato moramo temu prilagoditi učni pristop in materiale.*

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Ključne besede: *vodenje, vodenje projektov, študij na daljavo, veščine vodenja*

1 Introduction

As lecturers and providers of knowledge we must ask ourselves: Do students go beyond understanding leadership and start practicing it, although they are not being explicitly groomed for it in a complex individual assignment that simulates real life situations in project management?

The aim of this paper is to explore whether and how students who enrolled to an online project management course understand leadership, what they perceive as problems in a project and how they demonstrate their leadership behavior to solve these problems. It is crucial that students have a basic understanding about management and the fact that leaders have a significant influence on the success of the project and the whole process. This understanding can make the process easier for potential leaders. Another purpose of this paper is to evaluate students according to their comments on how they are solving problems in the given cases and to catch some points regarding their leadership.

Students' assignments have been analyzed critically to determine who went a step further and demonstrated leadership skills when elaborating the case, as a consultant, as indicated in the assignment guidelines.

1.2 Definition of leadership

Leadership is a subject discussed widely by different fields and examined by academics in several ways. Previous contributions to the leadership literature have come from various social sciences such as anthropology, political sciences, psychology, sociology, education, business, etc. (Rost, 1993). Studies from different fields bring about variety of leadership definitions. Every author refers to its traits, roles and dimensions reflecting his/her own perspective while defining leadership. It makes the field of leadership as a nested structure, a powerful combination of cumulative knowledge coming from different sides.

Bass and Stogdill (1990) classified the definitions of leadership according to approaches of previous studies while discussing the concepts of leadership. They summed up definitions and presented them under determined topics. First, they considered leadership as a universal issue interesting for humankind and then as a subject of inquiry for researchers. Some authors focused on the influential nature of leadership. If team members show a change while fulfilling their responsibilities, we can say that there is an influence on them by the leader. Leaders use power which is in their hands, so they can influence team members as well as to dominate them.

Some definitions give a point of view regarding that acts or behaviors of leaders (unclear sentence). They focus on all behaviors of leaders, not only the ones which are shown while coordinating and directing team members. Because leaders' actions may involve

motivating team members, sharing experiences with them and build trust within the group. On the other hand, some researchers (Bass, 1990) emphasized the persuasive aspect of leadership. Here, leadership is seen as a form of behavior, persuading team members to do what the leader wants. If a leader convinces his/her team members to do something and team members accept these instructions, we can say that the leader is good. For leaders, persuasion is an important ability which allows the team members to do their jobs voluntarily or wishfully.

In addition to this, leaders build a power relation with their team members. Power is not an important tool only for political leadership. Based on Authority Acceptance Theory (Griffin, 2006), a leader has power and authority by gaining team members' subordination, not having a right to command. This theory considers power as emerging from team members to leaders. So, leaders may force their team members to achieve results and provide interaction climate within the team.

It is hard to set a common project goal and motivate team members to work on it together. Leaders should consider efficiency at achieving objectives. Goals should be reasonable, acceptable, time adjustable and convenient for team members. On the other hand, leaders should be planners, motivators, mentors, as well as goal setters. Leaders give the starting point and action plans for followers. They motivate them to accomplish organizational and individual objectives. In addition to this, leaders stimulate others by setting out plans and creating teams to realize shared vision.

A leader has different roles and responsibilities as the other team members. Responsibilities are bringing team members together, setting goals, motivating them and even pushing them to do more than their best. This encouragement is one of the core elements of creating initiative climate in the team. So, we can say that leaders also provide organizational structure in the project.

As you can see, leadership has many aspects in terms of its meaning. After giving the conceptualization of leadership, we can sum up all definitions under the general definition belonging to Antonakis and Day (2017): *'leadership is a formal or informal contextually rooted and goal-influencing process that occurs between a leader and a follower, groups of followers, or institutions'* and use this as a base in our study. As seen in mentioned literature, the nature of leadership allows a variety of perspectives about leadership. Every project requires a kind of leadership harmonized with structure as well as with project requirements. This is also true for virtual projects as well as for face-to-face projects, but in a different way.

1.2 Importance of leadership in project management

It is surely beyond doubt that leadership is very important for managing projects. Leading a project may require different competencies as the ones you need when leading a company. Leaders don't just focus on the project success, but also the process

of how project objectives are achieved. This is the main diversifier between leadership and managership.

Projects have task-oriented structures, where you determine goals & objectives, clear tasks, timetables, strict budgets and harmonized work among the team members. These characteristic of projects makes the difference in leadership. According to Müller and Turner' study (Müller, R., Turner, R. (2010), common competencies of successful project managers are conscientiousness, motivation, influence and critical thinking. Results of their field work show that leadership styles vary by project types. For example, transactional leaders are preferred in simple projects while transformational leaders are preferred in complex projects. However, general argument of this study is that more leadership soft skills are needed for project management.

Nowadays the concept of emotional intelligence is crucial, and it is not possible to ignore it when talking about leadership. Although projects have a determined structure, the leader's job is to create flexible climate within the team and also take inputs from team members.

Achieving goals of the project has high stress and cost. In a stressful environment, a good leader is very important and very needed by the team. Leaders try to provide a steady climate and a healthy environment simply by being open minded, sharing their experiences, increasing the team's awareness about the project's success and motivating them to concentrate on the project.

According to Kumar's study (2009), it is not enough that project managers have technical and business skills to deliver to the project's success. He highlights the importance of leadership skills for project managers and refers to these skills as motivating and inspiring, team building, negotiating and communicating and listening and influencing skills. From a different viewpoint (Lencioni, 2002), the most important role of leaders is to solve dysfunctionality in project teams. Using this approach, problems of a project team are absence of trust, fear of conflict, lack of commitment, avoidance of accountability and inattention to results. So, what should leaders do to overcome dysfunctionality of project teams?

Leaders should build trust and honesty among team members while managing projects. Otherwise, team members have problems in believing in team spirit including equality in job division, fairness in payments, similar contribution by each team member etc. Conflict is an expected issue for project teams. Leaders should foresee which individuals or informal groups may create conflicts and plan ahead certain measures that could possibly prevent any kind of conflict. Commitment does not only mean following the team's objectives but also building relationships with other team members in psychological and social manner. Leaders build commitment within the team, to project objectives, other team members and themselves. Transparency has a key role when delivering a successful project. Processes of planning, budgeting and performance measuring should be shared with all the team in detail. This pushes members to see

their future and motivates them to work on it. Finally, if team members work just for themselves and do not care about the project goals, we can say that leaders face 'inattention to results' problem. Leaders can plan the projects together with team members at planning phase. Team members will understand more about project needs and will stay more focused on the target.

2 Methodology

2.1 Description of target student group

The analysis is based on a critical review of individual on-line assignments of 32 program participants - young professionals from Macedonia, Slovenia and Turkey, who were part of the Erasmus + e-Profman professional programme and attended the online course in Project Management, entitled "How to make things work - achieving results".

For comparison we used a group of 59 students at the DOBA Business School from programmes of Business management, Marketing, Management in Social and Education Sector. They were divided into 11 groups and did their assignments as group assignments.

The main difference in both groups is the assignment type. For the first group it was an individual assignment and for the second one a group work discussed before submitting the final work.

Our research methodology consisted of observing student behaviour and assignment results during an international project management course "How to make things work". The research duration was from December 2017 to September 2018.The course was designed for BSc. level. Student's groups were formed according to their own interest and/or previous preferenced common work in other fields, using the on-line enrollment system within the learning environment.

Research process

Firstly, we teach students the project management theory where much emphasis is put on the role of project team and project manager. (Reference: How to make things work, study materials by Tanja K. Stjepanovič, 2017).

During the course, students must complete the assigment. The goal of the assignment is to define what went wrong in a project that was critically delayed in a case project presented only by project deliverables and reporting evidences. They were aware of this assignment from the beginning when it was presented to them in a webinar. They must use their previous experience or the newly acquired knowledge to understand the project leadership and find out which mistakes were done in the case and to propose how to avoid or minimise them in next projects.

Among the first things they learn is how to set up a successful project team and what is the role of an inspiring project manager.

2.2 Setting up a successful project team

Many studies have analysed the methods and principles which enable the creation of a successful project team as explained by Régimbald, M. & Nault, C. (2002). In the world of today, we need to follow these principles:

Describe the purpose of the project

Everyone should understand the purpose and position of the project in the comprehensive strategy of our organisation. We need to explain how our project emphasises the organisation's objectives, values, and vision.

Clearly define expectations

Does everyone understand exactly what is expected of them? A project team needs to have a clear understanding of the results that are expected of them and why the team is comprised as it is. Do not miss a single opportunity to present project objectives and emphasise priorities.

Encourage cooperation

You need to ask yourself if project team members even want to participate in the project. Are they aware of the importance of teamwork for the success of the project? Ensure that all members see their opportunity to grow and develop in this team. Make sure that your project team focuses on solving problems and implementing activities. Try to achieve that the team successfully solves problems together and does not think too much about how it would best work together in a hypothetical situation.

Ensure control

The project team should have the opportunity to see the project's status at all times. For a project manager, this means that they must regularly publish and refresh the project status. Each project team member has the possibility to point out problems with the implementation of an activity and to consult with colleagues. Delegate responsibility for individual results or milestones. Make sure that everyone feels that their cooperation is important and useful for all in the project team.

Promote communication

Everyone must understand project priorities and their background. This means that important business information, which is pertinent to the project and affects the setting of priorities, has to flow unrestrictedly. The easiest way to achieve this is to regularly notify the project team at meetings or by sending notifications. Check how project team members communicate.

Understand consequences

A project team needs to be aware of the consequences of its joint work. Try to emphasise the positive ones but do not overlook the negative ones.

Change the thought patterns

The success of the project is the success of the team. Thought patterns in an organisation must change and lead to the realisation that supporting teamwork will bring long-term positive results. Hold regular status meetings to check the status of

the project and report about success and failures so that all can understand. The reason why colleagueswho are working on the same project do not get along is usually not incompatibility of character but the fact that not everybody has the same perception of the objectives and of how to achieve them. The sooner you remove this obstacle, the faster the project will start running as planned.

Is this a direct quote or just a summary of the respective text of Regimbald? If the first is the case quotation marks are missing, if the second, just provide full reference, incl. page.

2.3 Project manager's role from the leadership point of view

A project has no chance for a successful completion if it does not have the manager who acts as a leader (Maqbool, Sudong, Manzoor, & Rashid, 2017). What are the project manager's tasks? The project manager has to fulfil project objectives according to the adopted plan and with the foreseen resources (Whoitten, 1999). This is a very principled answer, which only hints at the importance and complexity of the work of a project manager. A project manager must embody the project in all its aspects and at all times remain focused on why we undertook the project, what we want to achieve (qualitative and quantitative objectives) and how to implement the functional part of the project plan. Furthermore, the two most important tasks of a successful leader are also communication with all stakeholders and motivation of the team. To implement all these tasks, the project manager requires specific knowledge and has to have, or obtain, specific characteristics.

2.3.1 The basic tasks of the project manager in project management

The so-called hard skills required for a project manager can roughly be classified into two parts – managing activities (ensuring that a job is truly well done) and managing the project environment.

2.3.2 Managing project activities

Let us first look at what these activities actually are.

An activity is a task in the context of project implementation, which has its implementer, duration and a measurable result. An activity is for example the preparation of a plan – the result is the plan (a document or file in electronic format). An activity might be the purchase of a device, developing a software solution, a meeting with a client, etc. In short, a project comprises specific, perhaps very large, but finite number of activities.

The implementation of project activities can and has to be actively affected by the project manager, since managing project activities comprise:
- planning,
- organisation,
- management,
- control, and
- coordination of activities.

Project managers do not necessarily have to perform the tasks of active management themselves, but they need to make sure that the tasks are performed. Project manager has to understand the organisational and management aspects while master planning, organisation of working groups, task management and problem solving. It is also important to understand the technical part of project which covers the techniques and approaches used by team members in the technical part of the project. If the project manager is a member of the implementation team, this is not a problem. It can however be burdensome, if the manager does not have sufficient technical authority or imposes his/her opinion. Although we mention the administrative aspect as the last one, but it does not mean that it is the least important one. Good administrative work brings order and stability to a project. In our work, administration means that we are following the project's financial, legal, and contractual procedures. At the same time, we are also thinking about how to improve it.

Of course, no one starts as a project manager with all the knowledge and all the skills. We should however be aware of them, think about our existing knowledge and try to upgrade it through additional training and later apply it in a project. The work of a project manager therefore also includes continuing education.

2.3.3 Communication

More than 50 percent of the work of a project manager pertains to communication [source], as one of the conditions for being able to successfully implement and control all activities is to have enough information about the project. The method of collecting this information depends on the organisation's policy, on the project, and of course on the personal approach of the project manager. The project manager must use the information obtained and harmonised to lead the project. Communication, with emphasis on direct/live communitcation is even more important nowadays in virtual project teams, which consist of team members distributed around the globe (Rozman, Stjepanovič, & Raspor, 2017).

There is a task we have not yet mentioned, it is however implicitly included in manager's duties. It's expectation management. The main recipients of the project manager's messages are clients, company management or the organisation, and the project team. For all three partners of the project manager, it is important to receive honest information and not data. We need to correctly present the status of the project and expectations to the client, we need to formulate clear requirements together, present a realistic schedule, and build a relationship based on trust and respect.

We need to provide our team with directions, management, credibility, and recognition of good results, while the team pays us back with high-quality work, implementation within the agreed time, affiliation, and harmonious work.

2.3.4 Skills of a good project manager

The previously covered points show that the project manager's tasks are versatile and that they require a lot of knowledge and experience. The work itself requires continual

improvement and learning to acquire the knowledge, experience, and skills that a good project manager needs:

- knowledge and understanding of the project content,
- knowledge of project management,
- knowledge and techniques of problem solving,
- experience in task management,
- searching for outsourced staff,
- knowledge and experience in planning project activities,
- knowledge and experience in organisation and planning,
- exposure to contacts,
- presentation and communication skills.

All this is expected from the project manager. If anything is lacking, we need to acquire it.

2.3.5 Characteristics of a good project manager - leader

All the above is however not enough, since we are working with people. The project manager therefore needs to have specific characteristics to become a good leader. It is true that some of these characteristics might be close to someone's personality, however this cannot be an excuse not to learn them and consciously change the way we work.

Typical characteristics of a good project leader:
- adaptable and flexible,
- able to concentrate on more than one thing at a time,
- radiates initiative,
- convincing,
- able to deal with several objectives simultaneously in a balanced manner,
- organised,
- prone to generalisation,
- able to identify problems, search for solutions, and make sure that they work,
- able to effectively manage time.

2.3.6 The key differences between leadership and management

Kotterman (2006) in his article argues whether there is a difference between leadership and management at all, or it's just about two different styles. The author defines the most important differences as shown in Table 1.

Turcotte (1983) agrees with that, and states that executive management and leadership practices become inexorbly intertwined. Algahtani (2014) in his literature review of 37 peer reviewed articles on the contrary states that management and leadership are very distinctive functions, although they share many similar duties (working with people and influencing others to achieve goals). As a summary of this short literature review we can state that leadership includes visionary (Lopez, 2014), motivation and influencing skills

with passion attitude, while management includes executive, hands-on skills with impersonal attitude.

Table 1. Differences between management and leadership

	Manager	*Leader*
Project startup phase	Prepares plans, budgets, timelines, milestones, task list and its sequence. Shows impersonal attitude about them.	Develops a vision, strategic plans and shows passionate attitude about them.
Managing team members	Organizes, staffs, delegates responsibility, establishes processes, displays low emotion and limits the team choices.	Aligns the organization, communicates the vision, influences creation of teams, displays high emotion and increases choices.
Project execution	Controls, monitors the processes and solves the problems.	Motivates and energizes employees to change. Satisfies basic human needs.
Project outcomes	Maintains order and predictability.	Supports useful and dramatic changes, new products or processes.

Source: Kotterman (2006)

2.4 Description of the "detective assignment"

Students were given and presented (in a webinar) a package of materials available, related to the project "Maple" (service order, project team advertising material, goal presentation, project plan, project specification, team reports, client's complaint letter...). Students must act as consultants – we call them "project detectives": based on the documents, they need to figure out what went wrong in this project using the knowledge they have gained during this course. The analysis must include an analysis of the project, as they can understand it from the attached material, findings and recommendations for improving the work of the project team, which has carried out the project.

Assignment was presented as realistic as possible: plans were partly over optimistic, reports were full of relevant and irrelevant information with the purpose of showing the climate and attitude in the team, marketing material was outdated and inconsistent, correspondence between project organisation and customer was on purpose emotional and filled with subjective observations.

The whole "evidence" was showing that project Manager was lacking leadership skills and interest in successful conclusion of the project.

3 Analysis

3.1 Results and discussion

Based on the earlier theoretical elaboration of the leadership role of the project manager (Müller, and Turner, 2010; Kumar, 2009; Lencioni, 2002), the students' assignment has been analysed critically to identify:

1. How is leadership recognised as a success factor in project management;
2. What are the key elements of leadership that need to be demonstrated when it comes to project management;
3. Do students go beyond understanding leadership and start practicing it, although not being instructed for it in the assignment.

3.1.1 How is leadership recognised as a success factor in project management?

Although all participants successfully completed the course, which included elaboration of the importance of leadership as a success factor in project management, the assignments showed that they can understand how projects work and what can go wrong in project management, but do not necessarily recognize the key role project leadership plays in determining project success or failure. The case analyzed witnessed that serious deficiencies might happen in all phases of project management and implementation and the Project Manager plays a crucial role in the phases of project initiation, planning, implementation, control and closure.

Of the 43 analysed assignments 53% clearly showed recognition of the role that the Project Manager played in the concrete project management and undoubtedly identified the deficiencies in his/her leadership role, while 47% missed to do so. The teacher (a professional project manager) critically reviewed the assignments and counted the ones which recognised lack of leadership in the presented project, defined key leadership elements that were demonstrated in that project, and show their own leadership in proposing new solutions and approaches.

For the 47% that did not recognize the role that leadership played, analysis of the issues has been conducted, but none of the responsibilities has been attributed to the Project Manager. Students concluded that things simply went wrong, but no one was pointed out as responsible for that. The critical analysis showed that exactly those issues identified as deficiencies and wrong-doings in the specific case of project management are among the key roles and responsibilities of the Project Manager, as a leader in project management.

3.1.2 Were the key elements of leadership that need to be demonstrated in a project identified by students?

The 64% of students clearly recognized the role that the Project Manager played in the concrete project management also identified the specific project phases where the Project Manager missed to perform the leadership role. Below are the common issues identified by students and their relation to the leadership:

Table 2: Issues identified by students and their relation to the leadership by students who did recognise the role of leadership

Deficiency identified	Leadership role in project management
Project planning	Setting and reaching project objectives
Organisation of working groups	Setting and reaching project objectives; Communication
Task management	Setting and reaching project objectives; Communication
Problem solving, conflict resolution	Communication
Project financial, legal, and contractual procedures	Setting and reaching project objectives
Time management	Setting and reaching project objectives; Communication
Risk management	Setting and reaching project objectives
HR management	Setting and reaching project objectives; Motivation of all parties involved, Communication
Client relations	Communication
Team communications	Communication

3.1.3 Do students go beyond understanding leadership and start practicing it?

We cannot be very optimistic about that. Only 23% of students demonstrated clear leadership skills and put themselves in a position to propose and lead the change process in the organization, to ensure improved project management.

They proposed concrete activites and changes in the organisation itself and in the management proces to drive change toward more successful project management.

The argumentation used by students in acknowledging the leadership role of the Project Manager in the concrete situation included the following statements:

- The success of the project is the success of the team, but a project has no chance for a successful completion if it does not have the right manager.
- If the Project Manager does not take corrective measures in the right moments to solve the problems, the project is doomed to failure.
- One of the critical factors for project success is having a well-developed project plan and a good team leader. The team leader would make sure that everybody does their work and will make a better plan for the upcoming obstacles that the team could face. The team leader should establish ground rules that the whole team should strictly follow, especially when it comes to the time schedule.

3.1.4 Difference in programmes

After the course we gathered evaluation reports from students that were working in groups. We asked students if they think that their work would be better if done individually. Majority (78 %) found group work more motivating because it offered them

possibilites of comparison with real -life situations and a wider discussion on the topic. Most answers were mentioning more critical attitude and different viewpoints in the group work. The students' grade for the learning benefit of this assignment was 4,94 (out of 7).

There were significant differences in the study programmes. Students of Business management were the ones mostly appreciating group work and study benefits (5,71), and students of Marketing the least (3,47) - which shows the different attitudes student have. It would be interesting to study what is the cause of these diferences.

4 Conclusion

A total of 91 students successfully completed the basic project management course, which included carrying out an individual assignment that required (among others) elaboration of the importance of leadership as a success factor in project management. Students' results showed that they understand how projects work and what can identify mistakes and wrong decisions in project execution, but do not necessarily recognize the key role that project leadership plays in determining project success or failure. It is also possible that they implicitly know something is missing, but they are unable to express it, since they were not taught about the role of leadership.

A critical analysis showed that exactly those issues, identified as deficiencies and wrong-doings in the specific case of project management, are among the key roles and responsibilities of a project manager, as a leader in project management. We tried to get as close to reality as possible in a distance learning environment and give to students an opportunity to (a) analyse the situation, and (b) propose improvements - as we believe that the highest proof of learning something is transferring the knowledge into everyday life.

The analysis is aware of the gap between real situation and simulation coming also from the difference between experiencing and observing the project. The limitation of our research is in the fact that students did not analyse a real project. They just studied available project documents and tried to understand the project as a whole. They discovered, outlined and proposed solutions for the problems and obstacles that prevented a successful conclusion. As consultants or observers, they decided why the project failed. This may be difficult for them when trying to understand leadership, but it also gave them the possibility to objectively observe the situation. We suspect that if they would have worked in a team in a real project, they would definitely feel the lack of leadership.

Only one in five students demonstrated true understanding of leadership skills in the given case and acted as a leader. They mostly focused on problems with defining project requirements, planning and measuring performances. A few students emphasized soft skills in leadership such as building team culture and work climate, etc. This is a significant output for our future pedagogical work since it contrasts with the current

leadership researches focused on popular topics such as emotional intelligence, organizational culture, leader- team member exchange, etc.

We suspect the main reason for this result is that we tend to presume that leadership skills are something the person has or has not (like charisma). Because of that, leadership skills education is mostly omitted from the courses. We are convinced that leadership is a set of skills and it can be learned to certain degree, but it should be brought to teachers' focus and maybe a dedicated course should be established. Moreover, we are convinced that it requires non-traditional learning approaches such as cooperative, situation and experiential learning.

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15   Generation Y: Creative, Innovative, Dynamic

Mateja Mahnič[*]

Abstract: *In this paper I discuss the problem of why a lot of wonderful ideas do not break through the initial stages. The research question is therefore: who the early adopters of innovation are and why. The article could be placed in the context of marketing theories of dynamic communication, digitalization technologies and theories of the role of generation Y.*

Practical implication of this paper is that generation Y is indeed identified as the correct medium for turning innovations into reality. Beside their roles as early adopters and promoters of innovations, they can also be creative and innovative as workers/employees. If they are treated properly, they could become a source of innovation.

Keywords: *early adopters, dynamic communication, Gen Y, digitalization*

Generacija Y: kreativna, inovativna, dinamična

Povzetek: *V pričujočem članku obravnavam dejstvo, zakaj veliko sijajnih idej ne napreduje z začetne faze. Raziskovalno vprašanje je torej, kdo so zgodnji adoptanti inovacij in zakaj. Vsebino članka umeščam v kontekst marketinških teorij dinamičnih komunikacij, digitalizacijskih tehnologij in teorij o vlogi generacije Y.*

Praktičen pomen članka je v identifikacije generacije Y kot pravega medija za širitev inovacij. Poleg svoje vloge zgodnjih adoptantov in promotorjev inovacij, so pripadniki generacije Y lahko zelo kreativni tudi kot delavci/zaposleni - ob pravilni obravnavi lahko postanejo vir inovacij.

Ključne besede: *zgodnji posvojitelji, dinamično komuniciranje, generacija Y, digitalizacija*

1   Introduction

My research/study's question has evolved from my curiosity concerning *why and how Generation Y are the best group to turn innovations into reality.*

My study's proposition is that students in the study's units of analysis are so keen about promoting and sharing innovative products because they associate creativity with innovating something new! So, then the innovation is a creative solution that suit their interests and needs, they are willing to share it through the model of dynamic communication, with interpersonal relations, especially on social networks.

That is the *why* and *how* they help to turn innovations into reality.

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1.1   Innovation in communication

I will confine myself to the phase when an innovative product or service is ready for entry in the marketplace. I will discuss the problem of why a lot of splendid and innovative services and products do not break through this initial stage. My thesis is that maybe we have to start from the point of view of the receiver/consumer of innovative product or service. Research question here is: who are the early adopters of innovation and why?

My work is strongly based on the model of *dynamic communication*. Since massive advertising campaigns are costly and not always efficient, we have to discover new ways of sharing information about new products and services. There is a paradigm shift going on. For our first step we should decide who our target audience is and who will help us turn our innovation into reality. That is the starting point of modern approach to advertising, which is called "dynamic communication".

The best synonym for this term is "interpersonal communication«. This model is enabled by the technical support of internet and the digitalization of society. »Interpersonal communication has long been recognized as an influential source of information for consumers. Internet-based media have facilitated information exchange among firms and consumers, as well as observability and measurement of such exchanges« (Sonnier, Alister, and Rutz, 2011).

One of the most efficient practitioners of this model in the Slovene advertising sphere is Arih Agency. When its creative director Arih (2015, 83) writes about targeting, his definition is "narrow targeting" which is directed towards people who are connected with the *same interests*. These groups can contain small numbers of individuals, or can be counted in thousands, as for instance firefighters. The only requirement is that they have the same values, habits, symbols and the spirit of mixing with each other. Arih has even metaphorically called these groups "tribes" or "flocks". We expand this to *generation Y.*

1.2   What is innovation?

There are a lot of definitions of innovation in business dictionaries, for instance this one: "*The process of translating an idea or invention into a good or service that creates value for which customers will pay"* (BusinessDictionary, 2018).

My preferred definition is this one: "Innovation is turning an idea into a solution that adds value from a customer's perspective" (Skillicorn, 2016).

Since in the model of dynamic communication the customer is the starting point, we have to know the needs, values, and habits etc. of our customer as our own.

Innovation is per definition synonymous with risk taking and so organizations that create revolutionary products or technologies take on greater risk because they create new markets/customers. So, if the innovators want their revolutionary innovations to make a breakthrough to the market and consumers, they must know their first public,

the one that will adopt innovations and share it with others. That means that innovations must have *added value* which is important for this first public.

1.3   Who are best supporters for revolutionary innovations?

In the one month in which I teach the course of DOBA's *Advertising campaigns* or *Creative communication* from start to the end, I'm constantly in touch with students who are aged between 25 to 40 years. We can range them among Generation Y, also called Echo Boomers or Millenniums, born between the early 1980's and 2000.

> *Gen Y kids are known as incredibly sophisticated, technology wise, immune to most traditional marketing and sales pitches… as they not only grew up with it all, they've seen it all and been exposed to it all since early childhood. Gen Y members are much more racially and ethnically diverse and they are much more segmented as an audience aided by the rapid expansion in Cable TV channels, satellite radio, the Internet, e-zines, etc. Gen Y are less brand loyal, and the speed of the Internet has led the cohort to be similarly flexible and changing in its fashion, style consciousness and where and how it is communicated with* (WJSchroer Company, 2004).

My students are very much like this description. But I have noticed that they also have some other personal characteristics like *creativity, flexibility* and *empathy.*

Their creativity is different from the artistic one. For example, 73% of USA's Millennials considering themselves to be creative, but they are not all artistic. Creativity is clearly a significant trait for Millennials. A worldwide survey showed how exactly Millennials were (re)defining creativity: in the first place they *associate creativity with innovating something new* (Van den Bergh, 2015).

Later, I will interpret how characteristics of Gen Y influence their ability and willingness to support new social movements and business projects, including innovations.

With all their attributes they could push innovative ideas from early adopters to early majority, then to late majority and then on to laggards.

> *We used to think adoption of technology was a systematic and predictable process. Innovators developed it, early adopters jumped because it was new and novel, others eventually came on board becoming the early majority, the late majority made the technology nearly ubiquitous and the laggards being resistant to change would hold out as long as possible. Our generation of Millennials has overturned the apple-cart.*
>
> *Millennials are 2.5x more likely to be early adopters of technology ('American Millennials: Deciphering the Enigma Generation' Barkley, SMG, BCG 2013), being both drivers and consumers of it. We want the latest and if we don't like it, we drop it for something newer and more resonant.* (Bleedorn, 2018)

But they are not just supporters of innovations; they are in large part also the innovators themselves. They are, as work force, the energy for changes in their work places. Here is another aspect which worth discussion and research is. The most important finding

of the observations is that Y-generations are creative and supportive of creative projects. But what does creativity mean to Millennials?

Researchers received a wide range of answers when asking Generation Y what creativity means to them. Here are the top seven answers as to what they associate with creativity (Van den Bergh, 2016):

1. Innovating/new (26%)
2. Ideas (21%)
3. Original/different/unique (20%)
4. Art and crafts (17%)
5. Develop/generate/produce (15%)
6. Skills/talent/ability (12%)
7. Practical/problem solving (10%).

1.4 Gen Y as innovators in branding

Here we have at least two possibilities on how to use the creativity of Gen Y: first is the option of using crowdsourcing new ideas via social media. There are a lot of crowdsourcing challenges, especially in the food industry. For instance, in 2012 Dunkin' Donuts had started a three days contest asking people to help "Create Dunkin's Next Donut. The result: 333,000 donuts created and 3 million Facebook impressions. Millennial marketing is in its full bloom and of course, helped by the segmentation of Gen Y into »millennial mums« (Fromm, 2013), »millennial men«, »millennial women« etc.

1.5 Gen Y as innovative work force

Because of their characteristics Gen Y could be innovators themselves or at the least innovative workers.

> According to an article that made the cover of Time Magazine back in 2013 under the title: "The me, me, me generation, the ultimate proof that Millennials could be a great force for positive change", their great mantra has been: '*Challenge convention.'* In other words, challenge the brief. In the creative process of any industry, communication or engineering, there is a need to be extra confident in order to maintain an optimistic – no matter what - approach to challenges, and to challenge our own approach.

> Millennials can challenge the brief because they feel they don't need to go with the flow, they feel they do not need a boss. They can see beyond the immediate problem, they don't need to really follow the design thinking approach; they can create their own world even if it's a virtual one. And perhaps this is one of the reasons why they are the most creative generation: they are ubiquitous thanks to the technology that allows them to interact and be exposed to the whole world, present and past, at any time. They don't fear losing a job or even a friend that moves to another continent. Technology has not only democratized information, but it has allowed this generation to behave with somewhat similar patterns in spite of being geographically distant or belonging to different cultures. They were born in a borderless digital world and they do not have barriers. (Gioia, 2016).

First question is how to recruit and engage the Gen Y workforce. Gen Y appreciates companies that have less bureaucracy. They want to see development and growth opportunities and expect to receive clear feedback. They seek a work environment that is flexible and an employer that offers out-of-the-box benefits.

A company's culture can either foster or stifle innovation. Fortunately, business leaders are able to shape a more creative work environment if they follow a few basic guidelines.

»Maintain an open dialogue between employees and upper management. Organize brainstorming sessions. Engage employees by encouraging them to share creative ideas

Do not force people to be innovative. Do not punish employees if ideas are unsuccessful.

Keep track of company innovations. « (Colgate, 2018)

2 Methods

2.1 Case studies

In my research I am mainly using the *observational method*. My work as an educator gives me a possibility to observe students in their natural environment, first in the online group and then in a classroom.

Since I am interested in the answer of why millenials are the best group for potential early adopters of innovations I decided to use *case studies* as preferred research strategy in my pilot research.

I think that I fulfill all three demands for using this kind of research strategy, since »case studies are the preferred strategy when 'how' or 'why' questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context« (Kin,1993, 1).

I consider five important components of research design for case studies: a study's question, its proposition, its units of analysis, the logic linking the data to the propositions and criteria for interpreting the findings.

2.2 Study's units of analysis

Study's units of analysis are three groups of students:

1. Slovene students in bachelor's course *Advertising campaigns* from March/April 2016.
2. Students in bachelor's course *Advertising campaigns* from September/October 2017.
3. Students in bachelor course *Creative communication*, May/June 2018.

2.3 Linking data to propositions and criteria for interpreting the findings

Since linking data to propositions and also the criteria for interpreting the findings "… have been the least well developed in case studies … but one promising approach for case studies is the idea of pattern- matching described by Donald Campbell (1975),

whereby several pieces of information from the same case may be related to some theoretical proposition" (Yin, 1993, 25).

2.4 Data collection

The results are achieved by observations and grading three groups of students at my educational lectures at University for Business Studies Doba which represents the study's units of analysis.

I partly use *pattern-matching method* with which I tried to relate results to my proposition.

2.4.1 First observation

My first observation took place in the bachelor's course *Advertising campaigns for Slovene students from March/April 2016.*

As always, I managed to acquire a sponsor for this course, "Steklarna Rogaška", which is known for its high-quality crystal products. The marketing manager of Rogaška gave the students a brief on their prestigious brand, Tera, which is a collection of full lead crystal, polished by hand and applied with 18K gold. We agreed to create an advertising project for this product, which contained communication strategy, slogan and the layout of an ad and media plan.

2.4.2 Second observation

For our next bachelor`s course *Advertising campaigns from September/October 2017* I tried another tactic and for sponsorship engaged a start-up company DP Derganc/Petančič. Its owners are two young artists who create and produce artistic T-shirts with graphic designs. Their work and especially their briefing on guest webinar won the heart and brains of my students.

2.4.3 Third observation

My third observation was made about the group of students in the bachelor course *Creative communication*, May/June 2018. Here I have had even better opportunities to observe, since this course was held in the form of classroom meetings. Ten students were formed in three groups and then each group created their own new product. Their contributions were really innovative, since they thought out three exciting and useful products: security collar for dogs, thermo ladle and sharpener for screen wipers. Two students didn't manage to finish study.

2.4.4 Pilot study

In my study I hoped to show a pattern in the collected data to my study's proposition that students in the study's units of analysis are so keen about innovative products because they are firstly creative themselves and secondly willing to share the creative ideas/innovations of others creative people.

But I have to state that in my research I only *described a set of observations* and data collections and *did not draw conclusions* (Hale, 2018), instead I just showed pattern

matching. That is why I would rather name my study a sort of pilot study, a small-scale preliminary study conducted in order to evaluate feasibility of the key steps in a future, full-scale project.

3. Results

Here is a simple table of two groups of online students (Table 1). enthusiastic about traditional product and their written works reflected this. Just one of my 63 students got the highest mark, 40 points, and just three students got 38 or 39 points for their Tera projects.

Table 1: The possible relation between innovativeness of product and quality of promotion

Study's units	Advertising campaigns on social networks	All students	Average grade (points)	Number of students with highest grade 40 points	Numbers of students with excellent grades (39 & 38 points)
First group	Traditional product	63 online students	30.2	1 (1.58 %)	3 (4.7 %)
Second group	Innovative product	67 online students	35.9	14 (20.89 %)	21 (31.34 %)

The first group's students did not fully engage with this project. They were not

The second group's students were inspired with the innovative product and managed to deliver a bunch of brilliant slogans, ads and other creative solutions, but they proved to be the most successful in their attempts to prepare an efficient and creative promotion of DP's artistic T-shirts on social networks. Students were using all kinds of tools of digital marketing and the whole assortments of social media – FB, Instagram, Linkedin, Snapchat, YouTube - to share the artistic product they loved. 35 from 67 students has produced excellent projects, 14 students were graded with 40 points and 21 with 38 or 39 points

Here we have a slightly different situation: the students in three teams created three innovative products and then promoted it on social networks (see Table 2).

Table 2: The relation between creation of innovative product and promotion of it

Study's group	Advertising campaign	All students	Average grade	Number of students with highest grade 10	Number of students with grade 9
Third group	Innovative product created by students	8 classroom students	9.87	7 (87.5 %)	1 (12.5 %)

They have gone through a lot of brainstorming to help other teams with their innovations. For instance, one team named the product of another team and the second team got an idea for a slogan of the third one. They really were very supportive and emphatic for their pals and again all the project was done very well. Out of 8 students, 7 got the highest grade 10 and one student got an excellent grade 9.

4 Discussion

4.1. New approach

I can confirm that relevant theories and data in chapter 1 which provided context for my observations proved to be a very useful guide on what to pay attention to. The psychological profiles of Generation Y play a great role. The references I use are more or less found on the internet and are written after 2015, so we see that the theme is a new one and more or less reserved for marketing/business science.

4.2. Connection between creativity and sharing innovation

My observations confirm that there is a sort of connection between creativity of Gen Y and their willingness to support innovations, not just their own but also from the others in their generation.

This is important especially when a revolutionary invention takes place. Since revolutionary innovations are risky, innovators must have reliable supporters, who back up risky projects and help turn innovations into reality. »Generation Y is the generation born in the period of transition. Being in touch with the technology since early childhood makes them the people who are keen on changes and think outside the box« (Petrovska, 2018).

4.3. Connection between creativity and using innovation

This connection *is not confirmed* in my research. For instance, just one of 67 online students in the second group has bought the innovative product - DP's artistic T-shirt with graphic designs. So, my Gen Y students are enthusiastic enough to share and promote the product, but they are not interested in buying it. The reason could be a high price for this for artistic T-shirt: 25 EUR.

4.4. Other observations for possible new research studies

Since Doba's educational approach is to stimulate *teamwork* I have had the opportunity to have an insight into what is happening in the students` teams. With rare exceptions they are very committed to their teams' success and they love to praise each other`s work.

So, maybe a proposition for a next study could be that *Millenials are not so individualistic as Baby boomers or Gen X*, because they love preparing creative projects and solutions with united powers: » … they make it work by creating a climate of mutual respect, so we can learn from each other. We create v group of colleagues« (Adizes,1992, 161).

In students' commentaries of my course *Advertising campaigns*, I have noticed a lot of praise for the *practical orientation* of my lectures. They said that they have been given much more competences with my educational motto: »less theory, more cases«, since this gave them the ability to work on real cases from the business environment.

So, maybe a proposition in my next research could also be that millenials *are more inclined to practical work and case study.*

Lastly, I noticed that students are willing to make a *positive impact* to the world. In my course "*Creative Communication*" they were working on fundraising for the animal shelter »Zavetišče Ljubljana«. They prepared beautiful projects, full of emotions and eagerness to help poor animals. So, the proposition in my next research could also be that millenials are inclined toward fund raising and other positive impacts on society.

5. Conclusions

I hope that I have managed to at least indicate the answers to study's question of why and how Generation Y is the best group to turn innovations into reality. I hope that I have confirmed my study's proposition that my students in study's units of analysis are so keen about promoting and sharing innovative products because:

- they are creative, and they associate creativity with innovating something new;
- innovation is a creative solution that suit their interests/needs;
- innovation has an added value for them;
- they are used of networking and willing to share adopted innovations through the model of dynamic communication, with interpersonal relations, especially on social networks.

So, they *help* to make innovations a reality. And the reality is that "We're living in the digitalized world where the classic theories of consumer persuasion are dead. And here we come again to the model of dynamic communication where you aim at one person to hit thousands" (Arih, 2015).

Millenials are reality. But Generation Z is coming. One of the major obstacles in marketing science is that the modern life is too fast to catch it. When you get the answers from a survey, the situation you have been researching has changed. Reality is changing every day. Here I can see the advantages of research centers in business schools such as DOBA. Lecturers must constantly improve their programs and revise their teaching methods. They even use all the tools of dynamic communication: personal relationship with their students, on-line webinars, sharing innovations on social networks. So, I could dare to say that maybe they/we *also* turn innovations into reality.

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Odnosi z javnostmi in družbeni mediji, marketing in prodaja

Public Relations and Social Media, Marketing and Sales

16 Research Collaboration and Innovation Increase by Social Media

Maja Pivec[*] | Anita Maček[**]

Abstract: *Social media is progressively implemented in business organisations as means of communication among the employees. This chapter presents survey results on social media as an important segment of the communication toolbox of European Project Management, where the current practice of 137 respondents from all over Europe is documented. Social Media Tools enable communication to and with stakeholders and support the dissemination and sustainability of the project results. This research looks into successful project communication via social media and exposes which are the most applied social media tools for that purpose.*

Keywords: *social media, project communication, European project management*

Porast raziskovalnega sodelovanja in inovacij s pomočjo družbenih medijev

Povzetek: *Uporaba družbeni medijev se postopoma uvaja v poslovne organizacije kot sredstvo za komuniciranje med zaposlenimi. To poglavje prikazuje rezultate raziskave o družbenih medijih kot pomembnem komunikacijskem orodju v evropskem projektnem vodenju, kjer je dokumentirana aktualna praksa 137 anketirancev iz vse Evrope. Orodja družbenih medijev omogočajo komuniciranje z in med deležniki ter podpirajo razširjanje in trajnost rezultatov projekta. Ta raziskava se ukvarja z uspešnim projektnim komuniciranjem s pomočjo družbenih medijev in razkriva, katera so najbolj uporabna orodja družbenih medijev za ta namen.*

Ključne besede: *družbeni mediji, projektno komuniciranje, evropski projektni menedžment*

1 Introduction

Social media has become an everyday component of our lives and therefore it is not surprising that it also supports faster and more timely communication within project management (Remides and Jones, 2012; Ihejirika, 2014). There are several studies showing the development, the characteristics, opportunities, and the role of social media in the professional arena. For example, a McKinsey survey from 2009 that encompassed 1700 executives worldwide, showed that 64 % of their companies were

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using social media for effective internal communications (Culnan et al., 2010). In a similar study of executives, Barnes and Mattson (2009) found that 52 % reported using social media as effective tools within their business environment. Remides and Jones (2002) analysed the emerging practice of companies using social media to support project management, and Turan and Sahin (2012) exposed that wikis, blogs, tagging, podcasts and other social networking websites such as Facebook, Twitter, Flickr, YouTube, etc., have radically altered user interactions on the web from a static one directional consumption process, to a more dynamic multi-directional and participatory process. Further to this, Amade (2017) proved that the use of Facebook, Blogs and RSS feeds, instant messaging, Twitter, and YouTube, positively affects effective communication within a project.

The H2020 Programme guidance social media for EU funded R&I projects (2018), the Communication and visibility manual (2010), and other similar publications (Antunes 2011, Kirschgasser 2007-2013), are often used to improve the communication about project activities and the subsequent results, thus maximising the impact and exploitation. According to Manasseh (2009, 18) social media communication channels, such as a Facebook account, YouTube channel, a project blog, and Twitter or Instagram accounts, are all recommended for communication, especially to young target groups that can be easily reached via those social media channels. Huey and Yazdanifard (2014) detail the uptake of Instagram with business for communication and marketing, both within and outside the organization. Other studies (Nandagiri & Phillip, 2018), focus on using social media for marketing of products and services, and the communication of trends, and also suggest Instagram and YouTube are the most successful for reaching a wide audience. However, only with adequate information can researchers make an informed decision about using social media and be able to select from the available tools to enable the desired impact (Can, Dimitriou & Hooley 2011). According to Lorenz's (2015) study on communication and tools within European Projects, project managers most frequently use web sites, followed by a project newsletter, and project Facebook accounts for project communication. For the exploitation and sustainability of the projects, they use Facebook (65.91%), followed by LinkedIn (34%) and Twitter (25%) (Lorenz 2015, 54).

The objective of this research was to further analyse the use of social media tools within European projects. The empirical part of the study that was developed by obtaining primary data using the methodology and sample size shown in section 2. The results of an empirical analysis, the limitations, and the conclusions are documented in subsequent sections.

2 Methodology

This research study on the perception towards social media was conducted at the beginning of 2017 by means of a survey. The sample consists of 137 answers from participants across Europe (Austria, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Check Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy,

Latvia, Lithuania, Macedonia, Montenegro, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, UK), with some from outside Europe (Malaysia and USA). The answers for the survey were collected from employed people that are actively involved in or are participating in EU projects, using the snow-ball sampling technique. Social media networks, in conjunction with already established contact lists, were used to solicit participants for this survey.

The questionnaire for the study consisted of 27 questions and the results were analysed using SPSS. The objective of the study was to solicit the general perception and opinion, and the usage of social media in project management, and present the results using descriptive statistics, on the use of social media tools within European projects.

This study provides analysis and answers to the following research questions:

Research Question 1: *Due to the rapid development and change of social media tools, what are current social media tools used for EU projects?*

Research Question 2: *What features of social media tools would be beneficial for EU project work and the communication of its results?*

3 Results and discussion

With the aim of elaborating views on the use of social media tools in European projects, a detailed insight regarding the first research question: "Due to the rapid development and change of social media tools, what are current social media tools used for EU projects?" is presented.

To answer this question correctly, it was broken down into sub-questions related to the main research topic. The statement: "Most of the information relevant for my work I get from the social media." was presented to verify the respondent's position on Social Media for use within projects. As it can be seen from the Figure 1, no single conclusion can be drawn from the results received to this question.

Figure 1on the next page shows that 28 % of respondents find most of the information relevant for their work from the social media, however, the same portion of the respondents do not find this information from social media. 29,5 % of the respondents were neutral regarding the statement. Hence, it is assumed that these respondents get information important for their work from social and printed media, or other sources of information.
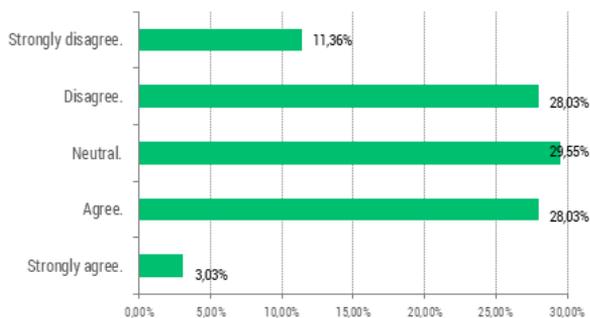
Figure 1: Social media usage for information relevant for the work

Following this, it was assessed which social media tools respondents most often used for project management and project related communication (more than one answer was possible).
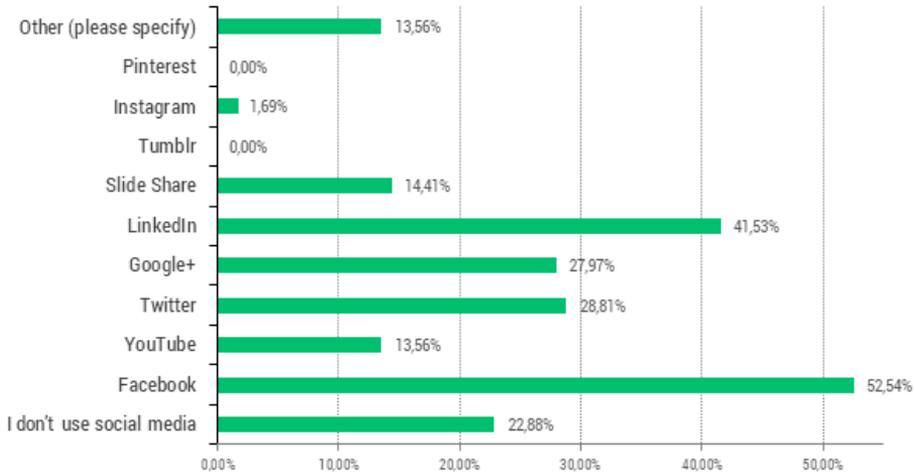
Figure 2: Type of social media for project related communication

Results presented in the Figure 2 show that Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, Google+, Slideshare and YouTube are the types of social media that are most frequently used for project related communication. Other tools listed include Skype, Trello, Asana, Slack, Yammer and shared folders.

The subsequent question determined which social media products the respondents did not find adequate for business use (more than one answer was possible).
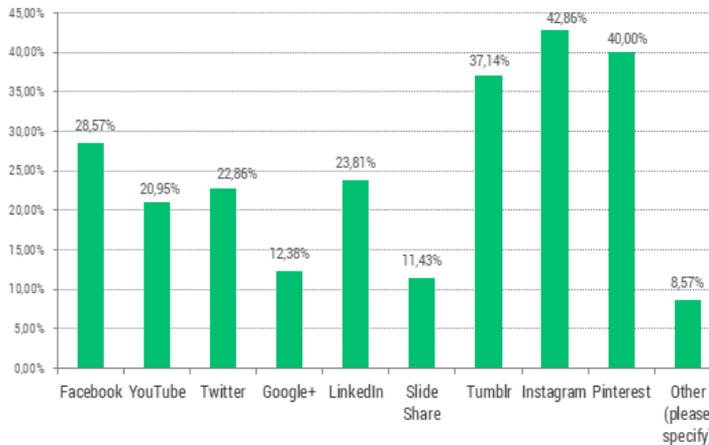
Figure 3: Social media not adequate for business use

Figure 3 shows Instagram (42,86 %), Pinterest (40,00 %) and Tumblr (37,14 %) are perceived as less adequate for business use according to the opinion of our respondents. Respondents were also asked to rank eight social media tools used for

communication about the projects, according to their impact - the higher the ranking, the more impact.

As it can be seen from the Figure 4 respondents evaluated Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn and YouTube as social media with the most impact for communication about the projects.
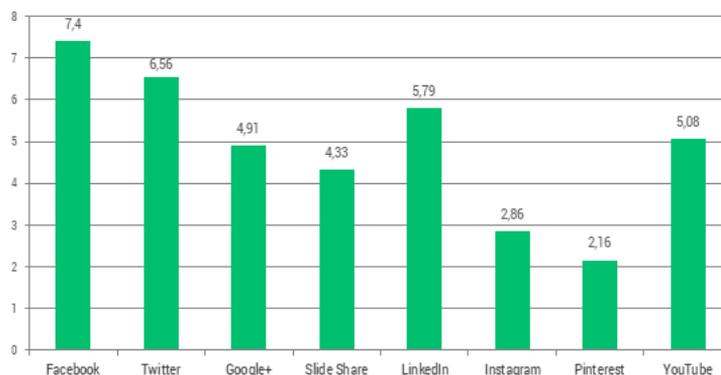
Figure 4: Ranking the social media tools for communication according to their impact

By summarizing the received data, an answer to the first research question, *"Due to the rapid development and change of social media tools, what are current social media tools used for EU projects?"* can be tabled. According to the opinion of our respondents Facebook, LinkedIn, followed by Twitter and Google+, SlideShare and YouTube are currently the most popular social media tools used for EU projects.

To answer the second research question, "*What features of social media tools would be beneficial for EU project work and the communication of its results?"* the respondents were asked two further questions.

Firstly, the survey inquired to which current features for project management of social media respondents find important to use for their work (more than one answer was possible). Results are presented in the Figure 5 below.
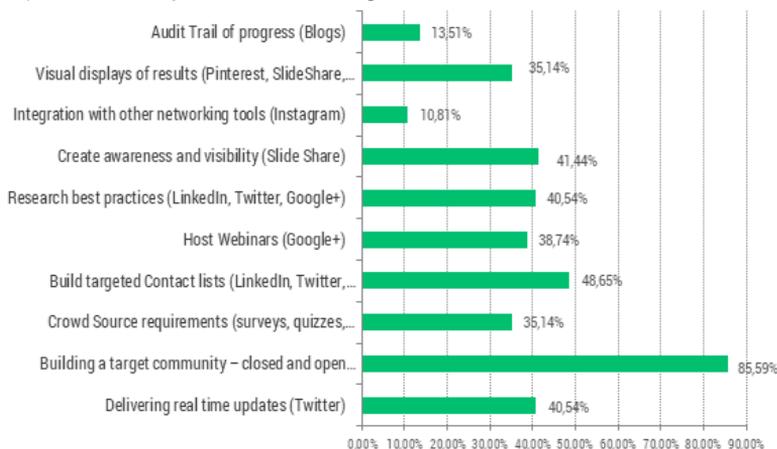
Figure 5: Important current features for project management of social media

Figure 5 shows that respondents answered that building a target community – closed and open (Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, Google+), building targeted contact lists (LinkedIn, Twitter, Google+) and creating awareness and visibility (Slide Share) are the most important current features for project management.

Respondents were then asked which features they would add if they were designing new social media features for project management (more than one answer is possible).

As it can be seen in Figure 6, better defined collaboration tools, followed by the portability (to be able to move content from one network to another), increased security and platform support, intelligent filters for reducing traffic, and tailoring what you see, were the most frequently features mentioned. This suggests that while most participants are using social media tools within their European Projects, further refinement and added communication features are still needed.
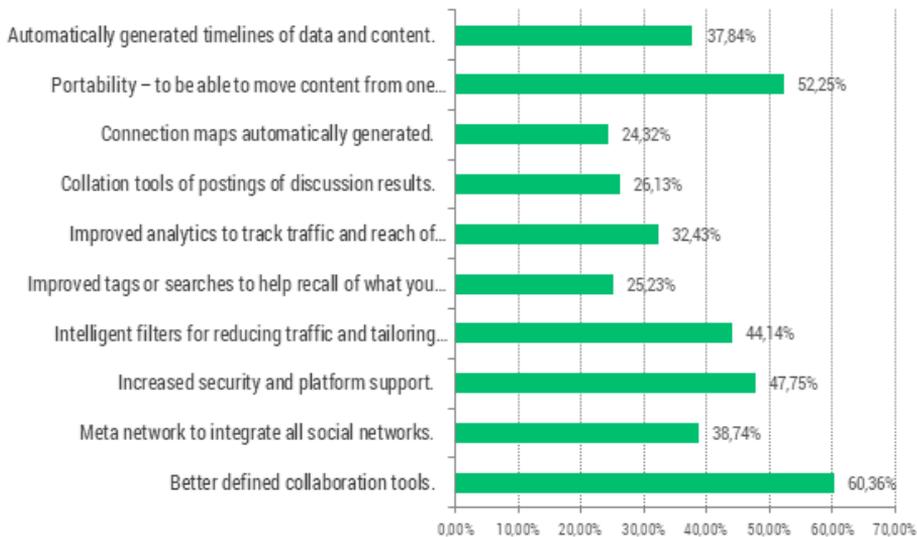
Figure 6: Features that would be added if respondents were designing new social media features for project management

4 Conclusions

The most popular social media tools used within EU projects as at 2017 are Facebook and LinkedIn, followed by Twitter and Google+, SlideShare and YouTube. This suggests that other tools have not encroached or made an important impact on the already established networks.

Hence, it is suggested that other social media networks, or new and emerging tools, need to establish their use for the business and project management with more daring and innovative approaches to boost their acceptance within this community. For example, Instagram is only ranked seventh as a social network business tool and seventh for its

impact when used for business communication, with more than a third of respondents considering Instagram, Pinterest and Tumblr not suitable for business purposes.

Respondents also defined collaboration tools, followed by the portability, increased security and platform support, intelligent filters for reducing traffic, and tailoring what you see as the features, that would all be beneficial for EU project work and the communication of their results. These features would further enhance the use of social media in the areas of building a target community, building targeted contact lists, and creating awareness and visibility, being the features, that respondents find most important for their work.

An important limitation of this study is its focus only on EU projects. The focus was on the specific EU project sample as the majority of the sample represents European countries, where EU funded projects are the main source of public funds for financing collaborative research and development projects. Also, with the recent implementation of the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) EU law on data protection and privacy, and related legislative changes on data protection, additional research of the implication on usage of social media for project communication and collaboration is needed. Furthermore, as social media tools are continually improving their features, and with the increasing numbers of users, it calls for more research on demographics and customer base of these tools. A collection of documented use cases of how to best use social media in the frame of European Projects would be also of value. This additional research is needed for better uptake of emerging tools, and to facilitate and optimize the communication abilities, as well as the work process, when using social media tools as a communication channel for European Projects.

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17 Družbena vloga sramu in njegovo generiranje s pomočjo množičnih medijev in družbenih omrežij

Vida Sruk*

Povzetek: *Sram je predmet širšega družboslovnega znanstvenega diskurza, tako da se je celo izoblikovala nekakšna »sociologija sramu«, katere predstavniki iz različnih gledišč obravnavajo ta pomemben psiho-socialen fenomen, kar je predstavljeno in kritično reflektirano v tem prispevku. Posebej aktualna je tematika generiranja sramu kot sredstva družbene kontrole v sodobni mediatizirani neoliberalni kapitalistični globalizirani družbi, saj je »internetna revolucija« številnim tradicionalnim medijem dodala nove profile družbenih omrežij in s tem odprla možnosti vplivanja, manipuliranja in posledično sramotenja poprej neslutenih dimenzij in dinamike, kar je tudi obravnavano, kolikor to dopušča okvir članka.*

Ključne besede: *sram, množični mediji, družbena omrežja, spletno nadlegovanje, družbeni nadzor*

The Social Role of Shame and Its Generation Through Mass Media and Social Networks

Abstract: *Shame is the subject of a broad social sciences' discourse, so that even a kind of 'sociology of shame' has emerged. Its representatives address this important psychosocial phenomenon from different perspectives, which are presented and critically reflected in this paper. The issue of generating shame as means of social control in modern mediated neoliberal capitalist globalized society is particularly topical as the 'Internet revolution' added a number of new profiles of social networks to traditional media, thus opening previously unimagined dimensions and dynamics of influencing, manipulating and, consequently, shaming, which is also discussed within the given limitations of this article.*

Keywords: *shame, mass media, social networks, cyberbullying, social control*

1 Uvod: sram – individualno kot tudi družbeno čustvo

Problematika *sramovanja* je gotovo ena perečih vsebin sodobnega družboslovja, ki spričo specifične ažurnosti ter dostopnosti elektronskih medijev v njihovih najrazličnejših formatih, predvsem pa tudi zavoljo ohlapnega rokovanja z resnico in odgovornostjo v sodobni informacijsko-medijski družbi postmoderne poljubnosti[1], stalno pridobiva na aktualnosti. Nekoliko drzno bi, glede na zajetno, delno celo že klasično tradicijo družboslovnega ukvarjanja s to tematiko, lahko morda celo govorili o

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nekakšni »*sociologiji sramu oz. sramovanja*«, četudi vsebinska raznorodnost in marsikdaj celo metodološka nekonsekventnost obravnavanja materije, v dokajšnji meri nasprotujeta tovrstnemu pojmovanju.

Etimološki izvor pojma *sram* velja iskati v indoevropskem in starovisokonemškem besednem korenu *skam* oz. *scama,* ki je pomenil pokriti se, zakriti se, skriti (se). Prvenstveno izraža individualno, psihično-fizično pojavno podobo fenomena, ki se kaže kot: zardevanje, prebledenje ali umikanje pogleda (prim. Brockhaus, 1992, 281).

Sighard Neckel ni zaman opozarjal na dejstvo, da je sram za sociologijo v veliki meri neoprijemljiva tematika, saj neglede na svoje normativne komponente ostaja v veliki meri prikrit v osebni, intimni domeni posameznika (Neckel, 1991, 17).

Kljub svoji fizično manifestni individualni emotivni pojavnosti je sram neeksistenten brez družbenega odnošajskega konteksta. Generira se socialno, s samokontrolo, ki je seveda družbeno socializacijsko pogojena, in s socialno kontrolo družbenih skupin ter institucij, glede na veljavne norme in vrednote družbe. Gre za mučno čustvo, izzvano z zavestjo (predvsem v moralnem smislu) o tem, da smo odpovedali (pred *samim seboj*), ali da so *drugi* to nekompetentnost tudi opazili. V tem smislu gre za občutek zadrege oziroma razgaljenosti. Čustva sramote, strahu in krivde so tesno povezana. Sighard Neckel je za razmejitev pojmov *sramu* in *krivde*, glede na specifiko vsakič prisotnega čustva *strahu*, uporabil pojem »strah vesti« oz. »moralni strah« za *krivdo,* ter pojem »socialni oz. družbeni strah« za *sram.* Sram se nanaša na neko notranjo prepoved (npr. glas vesti), ki jo kršimo, ali na tisto, kar v sebi prepoznavamo kot »zlo«. Krivda, ki evocira sram, torej ne potrebuje razkritja, saj se artikulira na osnovi našega moralnega občutenja. Predpogoj zanjo so: naše dejanje oz. ne-dejanje, prevzeta odgovornost za le-to in oškodovanje tretje osebe (prim. Neckel, 1991). Tudi osamljenost je močno povezana z občutki strahu in sramu in za veliko ljudi je sama po sebi nadvse sramotna. Vendar naj bi izkušnjo globoke osramočenosti premagai le v osami (prim. Bohn, 2008).

Konflikti zavoljo sramu močno obremenjujejo ljudi na najrazličnejše načine in v kali zatirajo njihovo življenjsko radost, samospoštovanje in intimne odnose. V sramu izkusi subjekt ogrozitev svojega družbenega ugleda in akceptiranosti. Sram ni le subjektivno čustvo, ampak ima tudi intersubjektivno razsežnost, na katero se zadnja leta v psihoanalizi pospešeno osredotočajo, saj predstavlja v psihoanalitičnih terapevtskih procesih prav sram glavni vir odpora v procesu zdravljenja (prim. Tiedemann, 2013).

2 Družboslovno ukvarjanje z zatonom civilizacij, prevrednotenjem vrednot in ustvarjanjem socialnega sramu

Problematika zatona civilizacije je v sociološki in širši družboslovni literaturi prisotna od nekdaj. Tako je Emile Durkheim 1893 obravnaval problem družbene anomije. Ferdinand Tönnies se je vpraševal o socialnih spremembah ob prehodu od »skupnosti k družbi« (1887). Problematiko sramu je leta 1907 v sociološki tradiciji s »psihologijo sramu«

eksplicitno prvi tematiziral Georg Simmel, ki se je osredotočil na »mnogovrstnost« in družbeno kontekstualno pogojenost *sramnih občutkov* (Simmel, 1986). Že 1918 je kulturni filozof Oswald Spengler napovedal »zaton zahoda«, José Ortega y Gasset pa »upor množic« (1929). Kritiko moderne je v petdesetih letih 20. stoletja formuliral David Riesman v »Osamljeni množici« (1953).

Vprašanja morale in običajev spadajo od nekdaj med centralne teme družboslovne[2] in še posebej sociološke refleksije. Problematiko sramu je leta 1907 v sociološki tradiciji s "Psihologijo sramu" eksplicitno prvi tematiziral Georg Simmel. Širši kontekst civilizacijskih sprememb, ki tvorijo diskurzivni okvir kulturnih kritik znotraj katerih se venomer diagnosticira razkroj vrednot in norm, spreminjanje družbenih standardov, razne oblike anomije, ter najrazličnejše pojave, ki se navezujejo na fenomen sramu, obravnavajo dela številnih klasičnih avtorjev, ponekod sporadično, drugod bolj eksplicitno.

2.1 Sociološko raziskovanje sramu

V nadaljevanju si bomo na kratko pogledali prispevke, nekaterih pomembnejših družboslovcev, ki se neposredno dotikajo problematike sramovanja: Norberta Eliasa, Hansa Petra Duerra, Sigharta Neckla, Richarda Sennetta, Lea Wurmserja in Michaela Lewisa.

2.1.1   Sram kot indikator »civiliziranosti« družbe ter kritika »mita« o civilizacijskem procesu

Norbert Elias razvija »sociologijo sramu« v svoji historično in psihološko podprti študiji »O procesu civiliziranja« iz leta 1939, kjer opaža povečevanje senzibilnosti za sram in identificira sramovanje kot enega bistvenih civilizacijskih družbenih procesov, ki ga spremljajo procesi racionalizacije, pacifikacije in informalizacije. Strah in zadrega sta psiho- in sociogenetsko povezana. Pojavljata se v obliki družbene tuje- ali samo-prisile, ki je nezavedno zasidrana v psihiki posameznika, ter v družbeni strukturi kažeta na različna razmerja moči oz. oblasti med skupinami in posamezniki. Strah se v posamezniku ob določenih socialnih situacijah avtomatično reproducira (Elijas, 1989b, 393) in izraža nemoč spričo dominantnih skupin. Gre za strah pred socialno degradacijo. Če so bili ti strahovi nekoč bolj direktni (fizično obračunavanje), tedaj naj bi šlo danes za notranje strahove. Elijasa še posebej zanimajo zgodovinsko spreminjanje *odnosa* do »telesnih potreb« v katerih je po njegovem zapisana družbena *moč*. Spremembe se kažejo v določenih distinkcijah, gestah nadvlade, v habitusu, bontonu, oblačenju, jeziku ter v »stališčih do odnosa med moškim in žensko« (Elias, 1989a, 230-263).

Kot kritiko na Eliasov teorem civilizacije in domnevno povečanje kontrole nad afekti in sramovanjem, je Hans Peter Duerr spisal pentalogijo »O mitu civilizacijskega procesa«, kjer med drugim obravnava »goloto in sram« (1988), »intimnost« (1990) ter »obscenost in nasilje« (1993). Meje sramu naj bi se v moderni zniževale (Duerr, 1988, 11). Rastoči

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[2]   H genezi razvoja pojmovanja sramu skozi kulturno zgodovino primerjaj: Bauks in Meyer (2011).

konzum, in ne zadržanost, naj bi zaznamoval razvoj sodobnosti, ter segal do »liberalizacije« in »trženja seksualnosti« (Duerr, 1990, 260-261). Šlo naj bi za slabenje socialne kontrole, kar ima za posledico razvrednotenje družine, zakonske zvestobe, devištva in starosti. Vzrok povečanja nasilja, sploh v urbanem okolju, naj bi bila rastoča heterogenost in gostota prebivalstva (Duerr, 1993, 460). Njegovo pojmovanje sramu je ozko, normativno in univerzalno ter se v glavnem nanaša le na seksualni sram.

2.1.2 Sram kot sredstvo socialne kontrole

Novo dimenzijo izpostavi Sighard Neckel, ko išče »pot k sociološki teoriji sramovanja« (Neckel, 1991, 105) in se sprašuje, na kakšen način se v individualizirani razredni, torej socialno neenaki družbi, sram v simbolni in oblastni obliki konstituira in reproducira. Družbene reakcije na sram so raznovrstne: samouničevanje, sovraštvo, konformizem, skromnost, vse do samostigmatizacije, poslušnosti in podreditve. Sram služi kapitalističnemu podružbljanju, s tem ko opravlja funkcijo socialne kontrole. »Socialna podrejenost fungira v sodobni družbi kot simbolična klasifikacija deficitarne individualnosti« (ibid, 177), katero velja sramežljivo prikrivati. Moderne oblike sramotenja naj bi bile pogojene z družbenim statusom posameznikov in skupin. Neckel ločuje socialni, normativni in moralni sram. Norme in vrednote so v moderni družbi izgubile svoj kolektivni moralni karakter, zato je posameznik prisiljen, izgubljeni status vzpostaviti sam.

Sociolog Richard Sennett je blizu tem pogledom, saj funkcijo sramu v industrijski družbi razume kot tiho, vsakodnevno sredstvo discipliniranja. Občutek sramu naj bi bil vsakdanja oblika kaznovanja, saj naj bi v zahodnih družbah nadomestil nasilje. Avtoriteta, ki jo ima nekdo nad nami, izzove občutek sramu podrejenosti, ki pomeni nemo kontrolo (Sennett, 1990, 116). Nekoč naj bi se podrejenost in nemoč obravnavala kot družbeno dedovana in se naj nebi pripisovala osebno. V moderni družba pa nas neokapitalistična ideologija hoče prepričati, da smo za svoj socialni položaj in slabosti odgovorni čisto sami.

2.1.3 »Socialna psihologija sramovanja«

Vprašanje manifestacije naraščanja oz. upadanja prisotnosti sramu v javnosti (predvsem s pomočjo množičnih medijev) je zaposlovalo številne avtorje. Psihološko disciplino, ki se intenzivno ukvarja s fenomeni vezanimi na to tematiko, še posebej zaznamuje kulturni pesimizem. Psihoanalitik Leon Wurmser je diagnosticiral »brezsramnost kulture« kot »najhujšo vseh človeških bolezni« (Wurmser, 1990, 393), ki se kaže v fenomenih kot so: rastoča pripravljenost za nasilje, obscenost, izguba moralnosti, mazohistično razkazovanje poniževanja in provociranje sramotitev. Sram naj bi izgubil svojo funkcijo, ščititi ločeno privatno sebstvo od družbenih posegov. Ravno nasprotno pa trdi njegov kolega Michael Lewis, ki ugotavlja čezmerno prisotnost čustev sramu, iz katerih naj bi izhajalo antisocialno, agresivno in depresivno obnašanje. Meni, da se sodobni posameznik, odkar se je naša civilizacija prepustila »osebni svobodi in narcizmu« (Lewis, 1993, 268), občuti istočasno kot subjekt in objekt. Ker ni več verskih

institucij, ki bi absorbirale naš sram, vidi Lewis edino rešitev iz pasti samozrcaljenega sebstva v ustvarjanju novih skupnih vrednot in zadolžitev znotraj skupnosti.

3 Množični mediji in njihova vloga pri generiranju socialnega sramu

Sram torej predstavlja težko opredeljiv fenomen, emotivno reakcijo oz. stanje, ki se, kot izraz svojevrstnega nelagodja, pojavlja v najrazličnejših socialnih kontekstih. Kot smo videli, se danes že kar bogata tradicija družboslovnega znanstvenega ukvarjanja s tem pojavom sooča z najrazličnejšimi aspekti manifestiranja (tako ali drugače pojmovanega) sramu: v določenem zgodovinskem obdobju (glede na naraščanje ali upadanje fenomena), družbenem sloju, določeni domeni družbene interakcije (prvenstveno seksualne, tedaj pogosto pojmovane spolno specifično), z razmejevanjem zasebne in javne sfere, nadalje z njegovo vlogo kot sredstva družbene kontrole v moderni stratificirani postindustrijski družbi in, kar je danes še posebej aktualno, z vlogo množičnih medijev pri transportiranju in generiranju sramu v javnosti.

Od 80. let, pa globoko v 90. leta prejšnjega stoletja je nemška revija *Der Spiegel* nudila platformo za javni diskurz, znanstveni in širši, katerega središčna tema je bilo vprašanje, ali v moderni družbi vlada fundamentalna in »permanentna orientacijska kriza«. Moderna družba naj bi »izgubljala željo po zavezujočih merilih«, in zdelo naj bi se, »da je pomanjkanje vrednot, ja vrlin, postalo trajni globalni problem«. Konstatiran je bil »zmagoslaven pohod degutantov«, spričo katerih »čuvarji kulture kapitulirajo«. »Slab okus« naj bi bil »dober«, kar ste tiče televizijske zabave, pa naj bi bilo nekoč vsaj še mogoče »opaziti jasne sledi sramu«, sedaj pa naj bi se »zmagovit pohod trash-kulture zažiral z malih ekranov naravnost v družbo«.

3.1 Vprašanje tabuiziranja sramu v moderni družbi

S sociološkega vidika zanimivo je vprašanje posledic kršenja družbenih tabujev. Ali gre le za brezsramno profiterstvo, ki brezobzirno tepta vse tradicionalne vrednote in kulturne pridobitve preteklosti in mu ni mar za morebitne civilizacijske posledice, ali pa tudi za pozitiven učinek liberalizacije, za demokratično odpiranje poliloga o pomembnih družbenih problemih, ki so bili do sedaj v precejšnji meri tabuizirani.

Družboslovna strokovna javnost naj bi spričo moralno-etične družbene krize v kontekstu »postmoderne poljubnosti«, pluralizma, egoizma in sle po samouresničevanju, ponudila ustrezne rešitve… Na temeljno vprašanje o tem, ali gre za »družbeno relevanten prelom tabujev«, ki napoveduje konec kulture, odgovarja socialni filozof Christoph Türcke, da gre bolj za »konsekvence kulturne industrije«, ter da kljub »posurovljenju« televizijskih programov ni mogoče prepoznati prelomov tabujev, ki bi presegali osebne občutljivosti in prizadetosti ter dejansko ogrožali obstoj družbe. »V domnevno brezsramni družbi se nešteti sramujejo svoje ekonomske manjvrednosti, tako kot so se nekoč sramovali le telesne hibe ali prekrška. In tam, kjer obstaja tako močan, množičen sram, bi lahko še najprej govorili o temu, čemur pravimo tabu« (Türcke, 1994, 53).

3.2 Nove teme tradicionalnih medijev in oglaševanja so premaknile meje sramovanja in vice versa

Michael Rutschky je v oglaševanju opazil novo vrsto telesnega in herojskega kulta, ki naj bi spodbujal kulturni pesimizem. Nadalje ugotavlja, da je tarnanje o »progresivnem razpadanju vseh vrednotnih meril, o vsesplošnem porastu zanemarjanja in grobosti, o razkroju morale« (Rutschky, 1994, 14) in o izginjanju vsakršnih tabujev v družbi, tako prezentno, »da mu ne vela zaupati« (ibid, 16). Občasno je bilo govora celo o tem, da je sam akademski diskurz podvržen klimi »verbalnega uboja« in se pozivalo k ohranjanju še kako potrebnega »intelektualnega sramu« (Greiner, 1994, 57). Rutschkyja prvenstveno ne zanima moraliziranje, marveč se vprašuje o družbenih procesih, ki indicirajo diskurzivno sposobnost oglaševanja ter porajajo nove družbene skupine nosilcev kulture in kulturne producente.

3.2.1 Oglaševalska kampanja kot indikator upadanja sramovanja?

Dober primer za demonstriranje problematike so danes že legendarne oglaševalske kampanje Benettona, ki so svoj čas izzvale veliko odmevnost ter so bile s strani sodišča celo prepoznane kot nemoralne.

Benetton pogosto v svojih reklamah sploh ni več kazal pletenin, ali pa le obrobno… Očitki senzacionalizma za vsako ceno se ne zdijo pretirani, če se spomnimo kršenja praktično vseh dotedanjih tabujev, razžalitev najrazličnejših čustev (verskih, rasnih, spolnih…): fotografije vojaškega pokopališča, temnopolte ženska razgaljenih prsi, ki doji belopoltega dojenčka, očitno fizično in mentalno prizadetih oseb v vlogah modelov… Seveda je ta inovativna, morda do neke mere neokusna, vsekakor pa izredno prepoznavna in učinkovita kampanja, za vedno premaknila meje v oglaševanju: tako v negativnem, kot, morda še bolj, v pozitivnem smislu, s tem ko je spodbudila javni diskurz o perečih družbenih temah, tudi o vlogi medijev. Ni le izzvala reakcije javnosti na osnovi predsodkov, stereotipov raznih vrst, marveč se jim je, s kalkulirano provokacijo tudi zoperstavila in zavzela jasno stališče zoper vsakršno diskriminacijo, še posebej rasno (modeli vseh barv kože v skupni kampanji…).

Razvnel se je goreč javni diskurz o mejah dobrega okusa, o moralnih vrednotah, standardih sramu in pravilih obnašanja sodobne družbe, ki naj bi jih veljalo pretehtati. Kulturna kritika je opozarjala na pojave intenziviranja grobosti v medsebojnem občevanju, komuniciranju, na povečevanje prisotnosti nasilja nasploh, na čedalje večjo seksualno permisivnost. Ogroženi so se zdeli temelji same civilizacije, saj naj bi se rušili tradicionalni tabuji in meje sramu. V zvezi s tem, pripisujejo v sociologiji množičnim medijem in oglaševanju središčno vlogo pri procesih preobrazbe družbe, saj se prav tukaj eksemplarično kaže, kako je preko javnega delovanja na široke mase mogoče producirat teme in diskurze. Tako je magazin *Süddeutsche Zeitung* objavil disput med popularnim kulturnim filozofom in medijskim kritikom Neilom Postmanom ter vodilnim managerjem prej omenjene kampanje tekstilnega koncerna Oliverom Toscanijem. Jedro razprave se je nanašalo na vprašanje, ali reklamna industrija s svojimi spektakularnimi inseniranji lahko spodbuja razmišljanja o središčnih družbenih problemih, ali pa gre

morda bolj za to, da »nam (grozi) totalitaren sistem, ki določa teme družbene diskusije« (Süddeutsche Zeitung, 1992, 45).

3.2.2 Televizijski formati očitnega samoponiževanja in sramotenja ter književnost kot zrcalo družbene realnosti

Očiten primer spreminjanja medijskih vsebin v smeri »brezsramnosti« so resničnostni šovi. Format »Big Brother« je še danes neverjetno uspešen v več deželah, četudi se zdi, da je pripeljal do absurda sekundni stil naturalistične drame… Izgleda, da s prikazovanjem dolgočasnega, povprečnega, morda celo podpovprečnega vsakdana, predvsem pa golote in seksualnih aktivnosti, zadovoljuje voajerizem in očitno potrebo velikega dela televizijskega občinstva po legitimaciji njihove lastne »navadnosti in nepomembnosti«[32] … Formati »Reality-TV-ja« kot npr. »Das Jungle Camp«, »The Biggest Loser«, »Adam sucht Eva – gestrandet im Paradies«, »Die Liebesinsel«, »Sommerhaus der Stars« itd, vedno znova odkrivajo nove možnosti razgaljanja, (samo)poniževanja, neokusnega razkazovanja, sramotenja in sramovanja…, njihovo število pa iz dneva v dan narašča.

Tudi književnost, in ne le trivialna, je venomer živela od najrazličnejših manifestacij sramu in brezsramnosti… Na to tradicijo naveže Ulrich Greiner s svojim odmevnim romanom »Izguba sramu«, ki se poigrava z najrazličnejšimi tabuji: pripovedovalka užitkarsko opisuje svoje analno občevanje, pop-diva nastopa v obleki iz govedine, moderatorka, ki je za malo ušla smrti, pred kamero jecljavo zaprosi za roko partnerja…, in se sprašuje, ali živimo v brezsramni kulturi. Kot pri vsaki kulturni kritiki gre tudi tukaj za očitajoče osvetljevanje propadanja morale. Književnost je nekakšen arhiv zgodovine sramu in v tem smislu tudi zrcalo spreminjanje časa oz. družbe v kateri živimo (prim. Greiner 2014).

3.3 Elektronski mediji in družbena omrežja kot prizorišča sramotenja

Elektronski mediji s svojo specifično neomejenostjo, neobvladljivostjo nadzora, vsesplošno dostopnostjo, ažurnostjo in permanentnostjo ohranjanja ter regeneriranja podatkov, odpirajo neslutene možnosti pri ustvarjanju in ohranjanju raznorodnega sramu.

Vplivi medijev so manifestni ali latentni, zavestni ali nezavedni, načrtovani in slučajni. Množična občila služijo ekonomskim, političnim in ideološkim namenom vplivanja, z internetizacijo ter čedalje večjo dostopnostjo sodobne elektronske tehnologije množicam, pa vse bolj tudi kot kanal sproščanja frustracij in agresij, ki v obliki grobega cyberbullyinga (spletnega ustrahovanja) ali subtilnejšega cybermobbinga (spletnega (psihičnega) nadlegovanja) preko Twitterja, YouTubea, Instagrama, Facebooka in podobnih spletnih orodij z žaljivimi, poniževalnimi, omalovažujočimi, sovražnimi ali grozilnimi sporočili prodirajo v našo privatno sfero in generirajo sram ter povzročajo

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3   K brezsramnemu uveljavljanju človeka »povprečneža« primerjaj: Sruk (2007).

socialno degradacijo posameznika (ali določene skupine), izgubo obraza, morda celo »socialno smrt«, hud stres in psihično razrvanost, kar lahko vodi tudi v suicid.

Oglaševalska industrija, filmska produkcija v širšem smislu, množični mediji na sploh, elektronski mediji v posebnem.., posredujejo z oglaševanjem številnih produktov modne industrije ne le modele materialne potrošnje za samoinsceniranje, ampak tudi estetske vzore fizične lepote, ki so tako rekoč nedosegljivi in nedvomno vplivajo na negativno dojemanje in vrednotenje lastne podobe (telesne, intelektualne, ekonomske, statusne...) ter s tem tudi na samosramovanje, ki se ne odvija le v osebni sferi in fizični socialni interakciji, marveč tudi v spletni socialni interakciji, ki je, čeprav virtualna, dandanes še kako realna. »Všečki« so merilo kvalitete samopromocije, internetno konstruirane biografije v Beckovem smislu, ki spričo tehničnih možnosti poneverjanja faktov in ob akceptiranosti relativnosti resnice in morale v velikem delu današnjega družbenega diskurza, v obliki »facebook-komunikacije«, kot ugotavlja Simanowski, tako rekoč uničuje pristnost našega doživljanja realnosti in celó ogroža prihodnost narativne tradicije (Simanowski, 2016).

Internet je odprl vrata neslutenemu pretoku znanja in informacij, pa tudi neslutenim zlorabam in načinom kontroliranja, manipuliranja, izkoriščanja. Fenomen ima Janusovo glavo, ima dva obraza, tako kot praktično vsaka stvar na svetu. Internet in družbena omrežja služijo tako dobremu, kot tudi zlu. Lahko ustvarjajo sram, lahko pa ga tudi pomagajo odpravljati. Sami profili so v svoji virtualnosti istočasno izraz svobode, kot tudi manipulacije, demokracije, kot tudi avtoritarne kontrole. Lahko so Avatarji domišljijskega sveta, v katerem smo lahko vse, kar hočemo, in pri tem relativno anonimni (»Second Life«), ali pa prisilni jopič »velikega brata«, ki nas sistematično spreminja v »steklene ljudi« in grozi s »tiranijo intimnosti« (»Facebook«).

3.3.1 Spletno nadlegovanje in ustrahovanje

Spletno nadlegovanje je že kar nekaj časa povsod po svetu pereč problem in zato tudi pomembna tema raziskovanja. Nevarni vpliv »cyberbullyinga« je viden predvsem na mlajši populaciji. Znanstveni diskurz na osnovi interdisciplinarnih študij različnih področji, kot npr. raziskovanja možganov, otroške razvojne psihologije in fiziologije, socialne politike, viktimologije in raziskovanja interneta razkriva, da je predvsem populacija adolescentov spričo njihove želje po razburljivem življenju, odvisnosti od nagrajevanja in odobravanja, podvrženosti vplivom, sodbam ter pritiskom vrstnikov, nezrelosti, emotivne občutljivosti, pomanjkanja kognitivnega procesiranja, racionalnega soočanja in dolgoročnega načrtovanja, še posebej ranljiva. Potrebno naj bi bilo zoperstaviti se tem »družbenim boleznim« z vzpostavitvijo sodelovanja med starši, šolami, vladnimi in nevladnimi organizacijami, pa tudi s pomočjo družbenih omrežij (Cohen-Almagor, 2018, 42-52).

Velik problem predstavlja sramotenje preko spletnih profilov, ki izkorišča predhodno intimnost razmerja ali prijateljskega zaupanja. Ob konfliktu v odnosu ali ob razdoru le-tega, pride do razširjanja »maščevalne pornografije« in delitve eksplicitno seksualnih vsebin brez privolitve akterja. Velik problem v tem kontekstu predstavlja nedorečenost

pravne situacije v zvezi s sankcioniranjem tovrstnih dejanj (prim. Walker in Sleath, 2017, 9-24).

Od internetnega nasilje, sramotenje in posledično generiranega sramovanja, so močno prizadete predvsem ženske. Raziskave, ki se ukvarjajo z vplivom medijev na spreminjanje javnega mnenja glede problematike nasilja nad ženskami, so pokazale, da se preko medijskih portalov glede te teme z uporabo enostavnih narativov pod krinko navidezne objektivnosti posredujejo nadvse konservativna sporočila. Elektronski mediji, ne le da v svojih vsebinah tendirajo k ohranjanju že obstoječih stereotipov, marveč tudi generirajo nove forume in načine perpetuiranja nasilja do žensk. Zato se je potrebno neprestano soočati z mediji in opozarjati skupnost na škodo, ki jo portali z razširjanjem nasilnih, ženskam sovražnih vsebin, lahko povzročijo (Esteal, Holland in Judd, 2015, 103-113).

Prevzemanje družbene odgovornost za razbohotenje nadlegovanja in sramotenja na internetu predstavlja velik izziv za bodočnost. Državljani kot civilne in pravne osebe ter pravni sistem držav Evropske unije kot tak se bodo morali še odločneje postaviti po robu interesom velikih globalnih igralcev (Google, Facebook…), ki so le zmerno kooperativni in redno odrivajo vso pravno in moralno odgovornost za povzročeno škodo na uporabnike, ter ne hitijo z blokiranjem in brisanjem problematičnih vsebin, ali z razkrivanjem identitet deviantov.

Tudi v Sloveniji imamo aktualno raziskavo na temo spletnega nasilja, ki jo je letos spomladi izvedel Center za družboslovno informatiko (CDI) Fakultete za družbene vede Univerze v Ljubljani na populaciji več kot 5.000 osnovno- in srednješolcev. »V raziskavo je bilo vključenih 2.991 učenk in učencev zadnje triade (49 % deklet) in 2.173 dijakinj in dijakov (46 % deklet). Spletno nadlegovanje je bilo v raziskavi opredeljeno kot oblika nadlegovanja preko mobilnih telefonov (sporočila, klici, video posnetki, fotografije), interneta (elektronska pošta, sporočila, klepetalnice, spletne strani) ali drugih oblik informacijsko-komunikacijske tehnologije, ko te nekdo žali, nadleguje, zasmehuje, ogroža in ustrahuje. Rezultati kažejo, da je med osnovnošolsko populacijo, učenci in učenkami od 7. do 9. razreda, v preteklem šolskem letu vsaj eno obliko nadlegovanja doživelo 56 % učenk in 50 % učencev. Pri srednješolski populaciji je odstotek malo višji, in sicer je vsaj eno obliko nadlegovanja doživelo 65 % dijakinj in 55 % dijakov. Raziskava se je nadalje ukvarjala tudi s spolno specifičnimi razlikami v zvezi z nadlegovanjem in pogostostjo nadlegovanja glede na spol. Tako so spletno nadlegovanje slovenske srednješolke doživljajo pogosteje kot srednješolci«. Kampanja »Odklikni (Cyber VAW)« poziva k ustavitvi nasilja nad ženskami in dekleti na internetu in v socialnih omrežjih ter je financirana od Evropske unije v okviru Programa za pravice, enakost in državljanstvo. V projektu sodelujejo tudi MDDSZ, MNZ-Policija, MP-Center za izobraževanje v pravosodju ter MDDSZ. Sodelovanje vseh teh institucij pri soočanju s čedalje bolj perečim problemom spletnega nadlegovanja je smiselno in nujno. CDI namerava 2018/2019 izvesti preko 100 delavnic za učence, dijake in razne strokovne javnosti, da

bi senzibilizirali za problem in našli najboljše rešitve za njegovo obvladovanje (glej: http//odklikni.enakostspolov.si/raziskave).

Na srečo obstajajo tudi primeri pozitivne vloge elektronskih medijev v povezavi s problematiko spolnega nasilja. Tako je kampanja »# me too«, ki so jo pokrenila razkritja seksualnih mahinacij hollywoodskega producenta Harveya Weinsteina, potegnila za sabo ne le njegovo socialno degradacijo, marveč tudi pravi plaz javnih izpovedi spolno zlorabljenih oseb v »show businessu«, kar je aktualiziralo javni diskurz o tej tematiki ter sprožilo formiranje različnih iniciativ in društev namenjenih soočanju s to problematiko.

3.3.2 Vloga elektronskih medijev pri oblikovanju želene samopodobe in posledično pri generiranju motenj prehranjevanja

Povezavo med razmahom motenj prehranjevanja in medijskim diktatom idealizirane fizične in modne podobe posameznika je tema velikega števila študij in prispevkov. V zadnjem času se raziskovanje bolj koncentrira na »nove« medijske oblike - na internet in še posebej na družbena omrežja (»SNSs«). Ugotovljena je povezava med aktivnostmi na socialnih omrežjih ter generiranjem specifične telesne podobe (»body image«), določenega lepotnega ideala, kar posledično, zavoljo poskusa doseganja tega ideala, vodi v motnje prehranjevanja (»disordered eating«). Določene aktivnosti na družbenih omrežjih, kot npr. ogledovanje in nalaganje fotografij z omrežja, posodabljanje lastnega profila in sledenje negativnih odzivov nanj, so bile v tem kontekstu prepoznane kot posebej problematične. Zdi se, da spol v opazovanih procesih ne igra nobene vloge, vendar ta vprašanja napačne adaptacije terjajo še več longitudinalnih in eksperimentalnih študij (prim. Holland in Tiggemann, 2016, 100-110). Ob že precej raziskanem Facebooku, ki očitno vpliva na oblikovanje ideala osebne podobe, naj bi se veljalo podrobneje posvetiti tudi drugim platformam, predvsem Instagramu (prim. Fardouly in Vartanian, 2016).

3.3.3 Družbena kontrola velekapitala, izguba privatnosti in potrošništvo kot vrednota

S pomočjo formatov kot sta npr. Facebook ali Twitter zadeva pridobi na neslutenih dimenzijah, saj je »novo« območje dozdevno intimne privatnosti na perverzen način identično z javnostjo, ki je v vseh svojih elektronskih, multimedijskih razsežnostih in konsekvencah individualnemu občutenju nedojemljiva, glede na svoj ustroj, pa tudi tako rekoč časovno permanentna, podvržena zbiranju osebnih podatkov vseh vrst (potrošniških, psiholoških, političnih, zdravstvenih…) za najrazličnejše eksploativne namene »velikega brata«, ki se izmika vsakršni kontroli in agresivno kreira »steklenega človeka«.

Socialni sram se kompenzira s potrošništvom. Vse naj bi se dalo kupiti z denarjem, ki je v neo-liberalnem kapitalizmu najvišja vrednota. Vse je na prodaj, tudi poprej netržne vrednote, vse se pretvarja v blago… Pripadniki vseh slojev se po najboljši moči poskušajo približati reklamno-oglaševalskim idealom, tisti nižji pač s potrošništvom na najnižji ravni, s kupovanjem cenene in hitro zamenljive mode, kar pomeni tako *človeško* kot tudi *ekološko katastrofo*. S tovrstno navidezno participacijo blagostanja se skuša pomiriti

deprivirane sloje prvega in drugega sveta, in zakriti njihovo realno socialno degradacijo - sicer lahko kupijo veliko majic za dolar, a nimajo dostopa do bistvenih dobrin: do nepremičnin, zdravstva, študija... Prihaja do izginjanje srednjega sloja, izginjanje razredne zavesti, večajoči se sloja storitvenih dejavnosti pa progresivno tone v revščino.... Pohlep in egoizem finančnega sveta, boj politike za ohranjanje oblasti, samoinsceniranje medijev, seks in potrošnja v vsakdanu, so izrinili človeka in medčloveške odnose iz fokusa. Brezsramnost vodi do tega, da ljudem javno vedno bolj lažejo, jih goljufajo, izkoriščajo, ponižujejo in zavajajo, kar pomeni izgubo človečnosti, sočutja, in socialne odgovornosti (prim. Hantel-Quitmann, 2009).

4   Sklep

Sram je pomembno sredstvo družbene kontrole, ki deluje s pomočjo raznorodnih mehanizmov vplivanja različnih skupin in institucij (medijskih, izobraževalnih, političnih, verskih itd.) in se artikulira preko psihičnih procesov samokontrole, kar služi tako ohranjanju pozitivnih civilizacijskih pridobitev, kot tudi ideološki, politični ter ekonomski manipulaciji, vzpostavljanju neme prisile, perfidnega družbenega nadzora ekonomskih in političnih elit neoliberalne kapitalistične družbe. Preko ustvarjanja občutkov degradacije in nekompetentnosti pri posamezniku, ter s spodkopavanjem nematerialističnih vrednot, najrazličnejši akterji (korporacije, politične stranke, tajne službe, teroristične organizacije, privatne osebe itn.) v sodobni mediatizirani družbi bolj učinkovito kot kadarkoli prej, in pod krinko anonimnosti, s pomočjo novih profilov internetne komunikacije generirajo raznorodni socialni sram (ekonomski, statusni, telesni itd.). Naloga »sociologije sramu« je, upoštevajoč bogato tradicijo družboslovnega ukvarjanja s to tematiko, stalno opazovati in razlagati ta psiho-socialni fenomen glede na spreminjajoče se kontekste družbene realnosti.

V javnem diskurzu je prisotna skrb kulturne kritike, da bi moderna zahodna industrijska družba lahko razpadla, saj so s preseganjem ustaljenih meja sramu in tabujev domnevno neposredno ogrožene njene civilizacijske, humanistične in demokratične pridobitve. Znanstveno ukvarjanje z moralnimi standardi, s standardi obnašanja in (za)sramovanja, ugotavlja povečevanje nasilja, seksualne permisivnosti, grobosti v obnašanju ter izginjanje skupnih vrlin in vrednot, kot npr. solidarnosti. Množičnim medijem in oglaševanju se tukaj pripisuje velik pomen, saj eksemplarično kažejo, kako se z javnim vplivanjem na široke mase producira teme in diskurze. V kontekstu postmoderne poljubnosti so se razbohotili (do dobršne mere nereflektirani) pluralizem, kvazi multikulturalizem, egoizem in narcizem, da pa bi kot posledico novodobne kulturne industrije, ki je omogočila v medijih skorajda nekontrolirano razširjenje brutalnosti in padec nivoja vsebin, diagnosticirali prelom tabujev, ki bi dejansko ogrozili obstoj civilizacije, se zdi neutemeljeno.

Ukvarjanje s problematiko sramu, tega nezaželenega, tako osebnega kot tudi socialnega, psiho-fizično manifestnega stanja, se zdi nujna spričo družbenih neenakosti in mehanizmov tihe, perfidne družbene kontrole, ki se izvaja preko vzvodov različnih oblik

sramotenja in posledično sramovanja v globalizirani potrošniški družbi navidezne demokratične svobode. Prepoznavanje teh mehanizmov samoomejevanja in – (samo)kaznovanja je nujno za osmišljanje situacije novodobnega človeka, ki se sooča s potencirano socialno stratifikacijo v družbi blagostanja, s pospešeno tehnizacijo in robotizacijo ter globalno medijsko manipulacijo. Prepoznavanje in ozaveščanje teh psihičnih mehanizmov (genetsko dispozicioniranih in družbeno aktualiziranih) je nujna za samospoznavanje ter oceno lastne pozicije v družbi, predvsem pa za senzibiliziranje za sodobne družbene probleme in s tem za potencialni politični aktivizem, ki je mnogokje, prav zaradi socialno generiranega sramotilnega občutka nemoči, nezmožnosti, nesposobnosti ter nekvalificiranosti skorajda zamrl. Pot v bolj demokratično, v večji meri aktivno in zavestno samodoločeno ter pravičnejšo družbo, lahko vodi le preko mehanizmov spoznavanja omenjenih fenomenov.

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18 Fake News in Marketing: The Spinach and Tobacco Cases

Iztok Sila[*]

Abstract: *What is the truth? Who is the truth defined by? Using two examples (content of iron in spinach and danger of smoking) we illustrate how easy it is to manipulate the consumer. Especially today when people reading news are more superficial, when everything we want has to be quick, instant. Without knowing the background. Because maybe we are not interested enough. If iron content in spinach might have been an unwanted mistake, tobacco is another story – the industry used all the possible ways of persuasion, trying to preserve the exclusivity and high profits, denying the obvious. We will see, fake news (in marketing) isn't something new.*

Keywords: *spinach, iron, tobacco, fake news*

Lažne novice v marketingu: primer špinače in tobačne industrije

Povzetek*: Kaj je resnica? Kdo jo v resnici definira? Uporabili smo primer špinače (vsebnost železa) in tobačne industrije (nevarnost kajenja), da bi opisali, kako enostavno je manipulirati s potrošniki. Še posebej danes, ko je spremljanje informacij bolj površno, ko hočemo vse izvedeti takoj, na hitro. Brez poznavanja ozadja. Ker nas morda niti ne zanima. Če je bil podatek o vsebnosti železa v špinači neželena napaka, je primer tobačne industrije vse kaj drugega – uporabili so vse možne načine vplivanja, da bi zavarovali svoje interese po čim višjih profitih, ne glede na posledice. Kot bomo videli, lažne novice v marketingu sploh niso kaj novega.*

Ključne besede: *špinača, železo, tobak, lažne novice*

1 Introduction

Several generations of children in many parts of the world were forced to eat spinach because "it was good for your health, it made you strong and you grew taller". Spinach supposed to contain an enormous amount of iron (ferrum) which supposed to be an important power widget.

Since 1870 when von Wolff first examined the amount of iron in spinach (Mehta, 2016) and published the wrong number, already in 1892, the right data was known. In 1931, the Popeye comics were released for the first time. A can of spinach was an important

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element of his strength and success. How come did the creators of Popeye the Sailor miss that?

On the other hand, there are 1,1 billion of smokers (Tobacco, 2017) in the world. It is interesting that on almost every package of cigarettes or tobacco sold lately there is a big black and white sign telling something like "smoking will kill you". And still, people are buying and smoking "devil sticks" again and again.

Why and how did the right information not come to consumers for so many years (spinach)? And why do people, who are aware of how dangerous using a product is, still consume it (tobacco)?

The goal of this paper is to explain the marketing (communication) tools, approaches, mistakes or perfidious ways of persuasion that made people believe that a) spinach was super healthy and it could make you stronger, and b) smoking was "cool".

2   Methods

The main method in the process of preparing this analysis was desk research. There are several on-line and off-line sources that enabled us to craft this paper.

3   Fake news

Fake news is "false, often sensational, information disseminated under the guise of news reporting" (Collins, 2017). Fake news was selected the word of the year by Collins Dictionary.

Usually, fake news relates to media, public relations or similar activities. In our case we tend to explain that fake news has been a part of many marketing campaigns in history as well. Big and important advertisers have been communicating several facts that later proved to be false. We will not judge how much of intention was there, misleading is the consequence that we are dealing with.

Related to this, 'alternative facts' are "nothing more than another euphemism hiding the insinuation, falsification of objective facts and truthfulness" (Sruk, and Ašanin Gole, 2018). Later authors also mentioned news satire, parody, fabricated news, photo manipulation, advertising and public relation and propaganda as display modes of fake news. We will see that especially tobacco industry used all of tools you can imagine avoiding telling the truth.

Internet as a platform and widely accessible (mobile) broadband with smartphones as tools opened a new dimension in the subject of fake news. UGC (user generated content) means everybody can make some sort of message. In no time. If you are not attentive enough (who the source of your information is) you can easily be misled. But still, even the biggest and respectful media was owned, controlled or was economically dependent on tobacco industry. In a form of advertisers or owners or members of boards of directors.

3.1 The Spinach Case

3.2 How did it start?

Erich von Wolff was a German chemist who was analyzing the amount of iron in vegetables, spinach being one of them. In many sources

> *Wolff accidentally misplaced a decimal point when transcribing data from his notebook, changing the iron content in spinach by an order of magnitude. While there is actually only 3.5 mg of iron in a 100-gram serving of spinach[1], the accepted fact became 35 mg. … Once this incorrect number was printed, spinach's nutritional value became legendary* (Mehta, 2015).

How do we know that misplacing a decimal point actually happened?

Daniel Engber[2], who really dig deep into this matter argues that misplacing is just a myth, since

> "*no one moved a decimal point in 1870. … The story of the decimal point manages to recapitulate the very error that it means to highlight: a fake fact but repeated so often (and with such sanctimony) that it takes on the sheen of truth.*
>
> *In that sense, the story of the lost decimal point represents a special type of viral anecdote or urban legend, one that finds its willing hosts among the doubters, not the credulous. It's a rumor passed around by skeptics — a myth about myth-busting*" (Engber, 2016)

Reason for the decimal point error became so popular came from an article published in the 1981 Christmas issue of the British Medical Journal that was their comedy issue, written by a famous author, haematologist Dr TJ Hamblin[3]. This article was entitled "Fake"! Unfortunately, many authors who were later writing about spinach, iron and scientific mistakes, cited this article and were spreading this wrong information (that sounded interesting), without checking the story.

This myth was ironically perpetrated by the famous myth busting nutritionist Professor Arnold E. Bender in his inaugural lecture at Queen Elizabeth College, University of London in 1972 (Sutton, 2010b)

3.3 Popeye the Sailor

Popeye the sailor has been one of the favorite cartoons for children around the world. Not only comics, Popeye has been a hero in comic books, television cartoons, movie,

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[1] According the USDA, it is estimated that there is 2.71 mg of iron per 100 grams of raw spinach (Engber, 2016)

[2] A renown writer about science is the winner of the National Academies of Science Communication Award in 2012 (comsiscon.com)

[3] "The British Medical Journal had approached Dr Hamblin and had asked him to write a light-hearted story. Dr Hamblin later said that, very unusually for a peer-reviewed journal, he didn't have to provide references. He could be a little 'loose' with the facts" (Kruszelnicki, 2011)

arcade and video games. In 2002, TV Guide ranked Popeye #20 on its "50 Greatest Cartoon Characters of All Time" list (Mehta, 2015).

Did you know that Popeye's reason of eating spinach to be stronger, was in fact vitamin A? That happened on 3rd July 1932 (Kruszelnicki, 2011). It is not documented that iron would be the fuel of Popeye's strengths (Sutton, 2010b).

It is quite unbelievable that the accurate information about the content of iron in spinach was already known in 1892 and that was shared among American scientists in 1907 (Sutton, n.d.) and still, Popeye the Sailor started eating cans of spinach as late as in 1931!

The third fact concerning spinach was that the strong sailor was supposed to be also responsible for the growth in consumption of spinach by 30% - nevertheless, "the consumption of spinach in the USA had already increased massively between 1915 and 1928" (Kruszelnicki 2011, Sutton, 2010a).

4   The Tobacco Case

There are 942 million men and 175 million women ages 15 or older smokers on the planet. About 80% of all smokers live in developing countries, where a portion of them are even not aware how dangerous smoking is.

Tobacco kills more than 50% of regular smokers, 6 million a year (plus more than 884.000 second hand smokers) and has a two trillion-dollar economic cost to society each year (Martin, 2018; Smith, 2018; Tobacco, 2018).

"*It is estimated that governments collect nearly US$ 270 billion in tobacco excise tax revenues each year. Tobacco tax revenues have consistently been identified as an important source of new, sustainable funding for the health sector. For example, the Taskforce for Innovative Financing of Health Systems recognized the importance of tobacco taxation as a domestic measure of resource mobilization*" (Chan, 2015)

Nevertheless 270 billion sound great, 6 million dead and 2 trillion dollars is a true reality.

Health protection can be financed through higher taxes on tobacco products – this is also one of the most effective ways to reduce consumption of products. Ban on advertising and on smoking indoors, including offices and restaurants and bars, helped as well.

4.1 A short overview

Tobacco advertising started with "The Camels are coming" in 1914 in the USA. Lucky Strike launched "It's Toasted" campaign in 1917 and "Throat Protection for Precious Voices" (with the NY Metropolitan Opera) in 1927. Old Gold cigarettes said, "Not a cough in a carload" and "Enjoy both (cigarettes and chocolate) …two fine and healthful treats".

Lucky Strikes were healthy: "there's real health in Lucky Strike…" and "Physicians maintain that Luckies are less irritating, Chesterfields were "Just as pure as water you

drink". Camels even supposed to keep a person in a good athletic condition (FTC launched lawsuit against R. J. Reynolds because of this false advertising).

Camels started advertising in medical journals and were active at medical conventions and said that "slow burning process produced less nicotine", while Philip Morris asked leading medical experts to say, "far less irritating". "More doctors Smoked Camels" in 1946 and 1947.

Doctors indeed acted as devil's advocates for a long time. "Physicians maintain that Luckies are less irritating" in 1929, "Leading throat and nose specialists suggest(ed): Change to Philip Morris" in 1949, and in 1952, L&M launched new cigarettes "just what the doctor ordered). Vickeroy claimed that their booth was visited by 64,985 doctors at a medical convention.

Low tar, mild, light, ultra-light… cigarettes appeared, menthol (Kool) offered protection against colds, but it lasted as long as until 1966 that health claims were prohibited (Lowell, 2002)

Winston "tasted good like a cigarette should", where Marlboro Man (in his cowboy hat and tattoo) is one of the most recognized symbols in advertising (Jowett and O'Donell, 2012).

4.2 Women (project Magic)

After the WW I, tobacco industry wanted to maintain the increase in consumption, so they needed a new market. Women. If at early stages there were just a few - "only women of loose morals would dare to be seen smoking in public" (Lovell 2002, p. 27), the industry started to "blow the right tones on the whistle". Women, especially younger ones, wanted to be untraditional, independent, and the tobacco industry found "the excitement of the forbidden-fruit connection" to be "the foundation for a century to market nicotine to women… with the false claim that only the free-thinking and independent dare to smoke" (Lowell 2002, p. 27). Women can make their own decisions and smoking is one of these decisions.

There is one more thing that women like as much as freedom – a slender figure, and this was one of the important elements of communication that remained dominant for decades. "Reach for a Lucky instead of a Sweet" campaign was launched by Lucky Strike in 1927, and brands like Little Darlings, Debs Rose Tips or Duchess appeared. Smoking women "…*would remain slim and sophisticated, while their smoke-free sisters (according to the tobacco ads) missed out on all the fun*" (Lowell 2002, 32).

The Pill, higher divorce rate, equal rights on the workplace and nicotine addiction were symbols of The Liberated Woman, hard-earned independence and equality with men was shown by the Virginia Slims' "You've come a long way, baby" campaign. If a woman wanted to be irresistible, glamorous, mysterious and sexy on the contrary to being plain and ordinary, she had to smoke (Lowell, 2002).

4.3 Children

According to Lowell, the teenage years are the years when majority of smokers begin smoking. Children want to pretend to be grown-up and using nicotine is one of the ways how to pretend.

Candy producers were encouraged by tobacco brands to use their labels on packages of candy cigarettes, spit tobacco was designed like candies. Even in Slovenia you could find chewing gum in the form of cigarettes (produced by Imperial Krško or Šumi Ljubljana).

Since restriction of advertising tobacco products became more intense, tobacco companies had to find alternative ways of communication for younger audience. R. J. Reynolds introduced Joe Camel, a cartoon character and collection of accessories, from t-shirts to clocks or baseball hats.

Tobacco industry was telling children not to smoke[9] with a "Helping Youth Decide" strategy. A communication tool was 13 million school book covers with Philip Morris logo (Lowell, 2002).

4.4 The Micronite Filter by Kent

In 1931, the first filter-tip cigarette, "Parliament" was manufactured. Although Vickeroy introduced their filter cigarettes in 1936, by 1952, when Reader's Digest published a series of articles about cigarettes causing cancer, cigarettes sold in USA were mostly filter-less.

In 1952, P. Lorillard Co. introduced a new brand of cigarettes and named it for its president, Herbert A. Kent. They offered "*the greatest health protection in cigarette history*" and launched Micronite filter. "*It's a pure, dust-free, completely harmless material that is so safe, so effective, it actually is used to help filter the air in hospital operating rooms.* (Cox, 2008, 193).
The Micronite filter in Kent cigarettes contained carcinogenic crocidolite - blue asbestos. From March 1952 until at least May 1956, they sold 13 billion cigarettes with this filter (Averall, 2017). This filter was even more dangerous than the cigarette itself!

Filters are in fact "… the deadliest fraud in the history of human civilization. They are put on cigarettes to save on the cost of tobacco and to fool people. They don't filter at all." (Kennedy, 2012). And, because of the filter, smokers drag harder to compensate slower flow of smoke.

5   Discussion

People tend to spread and believe the first facts that they were able to find, often because they hesitate to explore further i. e. look for different sources (Engberg, 2016,

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[9] And we all know that if you want a child to start doing something, you simply forbid them doing it

Sutton, 2010b). The correct information usually is not that interesting, and media are often not willing to publish the new truth.

In the times of self-regulation system that gives opportunity to consumers and competitors to control what, when and to whom something is said, distribution of corrections should be easy.

Why do people believe fake news? There are several reasons. The first is that individuals lose their ability to distinguish the quality of information. Which is not that difficult when information is everywhere, all the time and there is plenty of it. The easiest way to be safe is, secondly, follow the masses. People tend not to stand out too much, "me too" is becoming the way how to survive without too much trouble in life. The third reason is the fact that the average consumer is shallow (Sila, 2017) – doesn't have time, interest to get to the point or to check the source. With news aggregators looking for the content that is interesting for us, finding the right and relevant information should be easier. If we don't mind that *"social media and search engines not only make money from the clicks they receive, but also show content based on algorithms that learn from consumers' personal data, which "they are constantly harvesting"* (Chahal, 2017).

There is an enormous amount of content on social media. Of different quality. We are vulnerable to being misinformed but still, if the information we ran into is not in conformity with our own beliefs, we are less likely to accept it. On the other hand, if the information is shared a lot, we are more willing to accept it (and probably share with our own community).

If a friend or an expert is the source of an online news, we tend to trust them. Therefore, social media is "*a fertile ground for fake news to sneak into our consciousness*" (Shyam Sundar, 2016).

For an advertiser fake news represent double issue. First, if the content of the media where we communicate to our customers is reliable enough and does not harm our brand. Second, if messages concerning our company, brand or employees are not fake (either written by journalists, customers or even our competition)?

Familiar brands are reliable source of information, even more than the content shared by friends on social media (research in UK). And it is important to trust the message that medium where advertiser puts his ad is known and trustful. Appearing on a terrorist or a fake news website can damage your brand in the eyes of your consumers instantly and strongly (Chahal, 2017).

Big brands must show how to fight for relevance and avoid being connected to scandals, creating divisions in society or promoting anger or hate as some platforms do. Unilever is one of these brands. They even "*threatened to pull investment from platforms that fail to tackle fake news amid a "techlash" from the public against social media giants*" (Rees, 2018).

6 Conclusion

In this short paper we tried to explain fake news in marketing using two cases: (the content of iron in) spinach and (the health issue of) tobacco. We were not able to analyze and discuss all the sources and data. We were not dealing with campaigns and trends in tobacco industry after 1995.

In tobacco business, new, electronic devices (vaps) and liquids entered the market, that seem to be less harmful than normal cigarettes. Nevertheless, vap liquid typically contains nicotine, propylene glycol, glycerin, flavorings, and other chemicals (Smokefree.org). There is not enough research to prove how harmless smoking e-cigarettes might be.

Fake news, fake facts, myths – different words for the same phenomena got a bust with the development of internet (where you can find almost all the information) and social media (where every single user is a content creator). The effect of fake news is as powerful as widely spread it is. In a time as short as possible, since next day (sometimes even next minute) a new interesting information, fact, data will take place in readers' minds.

It is a responsibility of every reader, consumer, buyer to be careful in consuming media. In fact, if we want to avoid the effect of fake news (in marketing), there are some simple rules to follow: a) to follow the quality and objective media, b) to be serious and knowledgeable audience and c) to use common sense (Sila, 2017). And it is also responsibility of advertisers to be careful where to appear.

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19   Neuromarketing as a Business Strategy

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Abstract: *Thanks to neuromarketing, market communicators today get acquainted with the customers' experience sensors in the purchasing process more easily. The aim of this empirical research is to present the views of specialists – neurologists, marketing experts, practitioners and academic communities of marketing academics, marketing experts when it comes to recognisability and the applicability of neuromarketing in monitoring consumer behaviour. The conclusion is that neuromarketing represents a relatively recent scientific methodology dealing with investigating consumer behaviour, which, by using modern electronic tools, helps to achieve a more precise analysis and interpretation of the consumers' brain functions, which is useful to the producers of new goods and services who desire a realistic understanding of what exactly makes a consumer purchase.*

Keywords: *neuromarketing; neuroimaging; consumer behaviour*

Neuromarketing kao poslovna strategija

Rezime: *Zahvaljujući neuromarketingu tržišni komunikatori danas lakše dolaze do spoznaje o senzorima iskustva kroz koje prolaze kupci u procesu kupovine. Cilj empirijskog istraživanja je bio da prikaže stavove neurologa, marketinških stručnjaka i akademske zajednice kada je u pitanju prepoznatljivost i primenjivost neuromarketinga u praćenju ponašanja potrošača. Zaključak je da neuromarketing predstavlja relativno novu naučnu metodologiju u kojoj se korišćenjem savremenih medicinskih elektronskih alatki dolazi do preciznijeg analiziranja i tumačenja delovanja rada mozga potrošača, što koristi proizvođačima novih roba i usluga koji žele što realniji prikaz toga šta potrošače konkretno navodi na kupovinu.*

Ključne reči: *neuromarketing; neuroimaging; ponašanje potrošača*

1   Introduction

In the late 1990s we first met the term "neuromarketing". Harvard Professor Zaltman was among the first to speak about the possibility of using the latest technologies for analysis and influencing the customer's brain for marketing purposes. Neuromarketing is a new tool through which communicators can more easily understand consumer behaviour (Schneider & Woolgar, 2012). Consequently, it connects modern business with forms of communication within each individual potential customer. The basis of

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neuromarketing is a better understanding of the way customers think, their attitudes, emotions and preferences.

One of the pioneering definitions of the term "neuromarketing" is that it is an application of various neural methods to solve marketing problems (Lee, Butler & Senior, 2010). On the other hand, there are authors who advocate a radical stance regarding the connection between neuromarketing research and behavioural economics studies (Neto, Felipe & Ramalheiro, 2011). Certain authors differentiate the term "neuromarketing" from "consumer neuroscience", where the first term relates to market research for commercial purposes, while the second one is more widely used in academia (Plassmann et al., 2015).

Neuromarketing is a relatively new scientific discipline that examines the brain process in making relevant decisions, which is mainly done by marketing communicators, not by medical experts, as is often erroneously thought (de Oliviera, Giraldi & de Santos et al., 2014). According to the study of the afore mentioned authors, it is believed that the information that enters the customer's brain affects its activity.

Neuromarketing is also a new subcategory of marketing and a modern discipline comprised of elements of neuroscience, as well as marketing (Klinčekova, 2016). The techniques of neuroscience are its main substance, to better determine and clarify the workings of the human brain, which is considered the organ most responsible for determining consumer behaviour. Neuromarketing is considered to be a sublimation of neuroscience, experimental psychology and experimental economics (Page, 2012).

The aim of neuromarketing is understanding the unconscious processes that take place in the customer's brain, which are subsequently applicable in marketing campaigns, and include expectations and motivation during the purchasing process, as well as anticipation of the byer's behaviour, including the analysis of the effectiveness of a particular advertisement that is intended for those consumers (Uprety & Singh, 2013). Thanks to neuromarketing, we can ascertain the psychological responses of the customer's brain to the messages received, and those are very important for subsequent steps in the marketing campaigns. Today, neuroscientists are able to directly measure frequency, place and time of any possible neural activity.

The key to following the contemporary consumer's behaviour in the 21st century is finding the customer's sensors, i.e. those of the customer's brain, as well as monitoring the impact of those sensors on the customer's experience during the purchasing process. To this end, communicators strive to integrate all aspects of marketing and neuroscience. Observed from the viewpoint of neuroscience, it is believed that cognitive, perceptual, and emotional sensations in the brain of the consumer are recorded through a series of electrochemical activities that monitor and emit brain cells (Cohen, 2012).

Neuromarketing is focused on neural substrates of the entire psychological manner of thinking among consumers. It is based on two foundations: the first deals with the individual buyer's sensors that can easily be determined in the network of brain cells, while the second, by way of studying the same network, differentiates the unconscious

from the emotional appeal, the latter of which is crucial for making the final decision on a purchase (Achrol & Kotler, 2012).

1.1 Neuromarketing Research Field

Neuromarketing finds its application through new and innovative products, through price strategies, as well as all elements of marketing and promotional mix. It is the connection of neuroscience and marketing that reveals new and important ways of perceiving consumer behaviour. Communicators can easily find information about the consumer – product relationship, the impact of advertising on stimuli potential customers, customer needs that the market has not adequately responded to, and thus the potential business opportunities for the company (Brown, 2012).

Thus, to examine the biological basis for peoples' trust, the author decided to analyse oxytocin and its activity in the brain, which is believed to be released during childbirth and sexual intercourse. Based on the obtained results, he concluded that when people embrace, the brain will also release oxytocin. Speaking metaphorically, one could talk about a molecule responsible for engaging and caring for others.

In one fMRI (functional magnetic resonance imaging) study, the research dealt with the system of product preferences (Kirk et al., 2009). Potential art buyers were offered to see paintings from prestigious art galleries (the meaning of the known), while at the same time they were shown paintings on the Internet (the meaning of the lesser known). Although none of the paintings shown were works of well-known authors, prestigious art galleries took precedence over the Internet. Another fMRI study focused on the selection of products (Knutson et al., 2007). Namely, the team of researchers concluded that the activation of nucleus accumbnes in the brain is stronger while observing a product, and therefore the likelihood of that product being purchased is greater. Authors Karmarkar, Shiv and Knutson (2015) conducted a research the subject of which was the connection between pricing strategies and the application of neuromarketing techniques. Using the fMRI technique, they concluded that the subjects who first saw the price and then the product, evaluated the product from an exclusively financial standpoint, through the so-called value-added price. On the other hand, respondents who first saw the product, and were only then told its price, exclusively viewed it through its attributes.

Neuromarketing, in addition to covering a range of unconventional research techniques, includes the effectiveness of marketing campaigns, product design and neuromerchandising (Breiter et al., 2015). Namely, during several studies of consumer interaction with design and packaging of products, it was concluded that researchers, by means of neuroimaging techniques, need to find stimuli among consumer that would, through repetition, make them react most favourably to the given design and package (Spence, 2016). When it comes to neurodesign as a result of the use of neuromarketing, it is certainly necessary to have various cognitive approaches to neuroscience, which include numerous techniques, from eye tracking (Salgado-Montejo et al., 2015) to various tests that monitor consumer behaviour, such as the Implicit Association Test (Parise & Spence, 2012).

In order to obtain a more adequate argumentation of the obtained results, neuroimaging techniques are often combined. For example, eye tracking data is combined with the results obtained by other techniques such as grasping data or top-of-mind techniques (Juravle et al., 2015), in order to help designers, who deal with graphics and product packaging designs. The same applies to logo design (Batra, Seifert & Brei, 2015). A group of authors conducted research on consumer involvement with interactive TV commercials and concluded that the logo is more recognizable in the case of this TV commercials, as opposed to traditional ones (Treleaven-Hassard et al., 2010). Another study dealt with the issue of acceptance of products advertised by celebrities, from the neuromarketing standpoint (Stallen et al., 2010). Conclusions point to a high correlation between positively perceived celebrities and the perception of the product itself.

1.2 Neuromarketing as a commercial marketing concept

Over the past decades, various neuroimaging studies have been conducted, with the aim of determining the customer's unconscious processing – from considering whether to purchase or not, to the final purchase of the product/service. The results have shown that sometimes, contrary to marketing literature, various neural triggers in the consumer's brain make strong associations in terms of forming their opinions and attitudes regarding specific products or brands. It is believed that in realistic marketing situations it is much more effective to anticipate the future behaviour of the consumer, rather than convolutedly dealing with reasons for such behaviour (Ariely & Berns, 2010).

Through brand management in the field of commercial marketing, neuromarketing offers new ways to connect cognitive processes and traditional marketing databases. Through a more adequate understanding of the neural elements involved in the decision-making process of the consumer, companies' opportunities to quantitatively market their product on the market are strengthened. In this way, neuromarketing provides the possibility of modelling individual differences between consumers and interpreters of brand preferences.

Neuroscience in correlation with cognitive science, psychology and marketing is of great importance for the business process and strategic leadership, especially when it comes to determining and analysing consumer behaviour and how consumers make decisions. Due to better market positioning with the neuromarketing tools, marketing practitioners are now able to predict consumer intuition and reactions and conducting more efficient marketing campaigns. Since neuroscientists are well aware of the way in which potential customers process information, as well as the manner in which they respond to various previously created marketing stimuli, it is incomparably easier to interpret consumer decisions with far less risk involved. By analysing their cognitive and perceptual characteristics, neuromarketing provides insight into the customer's real needs and is a guide to understanding the customer's final interests when it comes to purchasing.

Researches and academics in the field of marketing, as well as marketing practitioners are intensively working on how neuromarketing techniques and research processes should approach applying neural methods to the business process itself. The main

purpose of such application is a better and more efficient understanding of consumers through previously set marketing stimuli, all due to the creation of more successful marketing strategies and subsequently, their efficient implementation in the business process. The latest global statistics support this, as more than 300 companies worldwide are currently working in the field of neuromarketing (Bakardijeva & Kimmel, 2016). Some of the examples that best illustrate this are: reviewing the reaction of consumers to a television commercial by Yahoo; analysis of consumer behaviour of users of the Xbox gaming console; measurement of the neurological responses of sports car users by Hyundai (Flores, Baruca & Saldivar, 2014). Also, the largest marketing research agencies have special neuromarketing departments and include agencies such as Ipsos, Millward Brown, Nielsen etc.

Thanks to the impact of neuromaketing on more efficient creation and design of television commercials, the following direct benefits are considered (Ohme & Matukin, 2012):

- Reference analysis - helps to determine the elements through which best to present a given product commercially.
- Vertical analysis – breaks television advertising down to images and sounds and examines which are more effective when it comes to getting the attention of the consumer, as well as their preferences.
- Horizontal analysis – different versions of pre-recorded parts of the advertisement are compared and the brain activity of potential customers measured for each of the given parts.

It is well-known that the market leaders possess originality, significant skills and experience in the management of the market, but that is extremely difficult to copy. Many see neuromarketing as a powerful tool for business, in addition to being beneficial commercial marketing (Green & Holbert, 2012). Thanks to the support of neuromarketing, a company receives the essence of what consumers think of as necessary, so it can innovate, develop and maintain its marketing strategy. Consumers enjoy the benefits of new of innovative products that are fully adapted to their desires and tastes. On the other hand, there are companies that successfully operate due to lower costs, thus gaining greater market competitiveness and further improving of customer service.

2   Methods

The research was carried out at the end of 2017. The survey method was used. Deliberate sampling method was used. Three groups of experts were interviewed:

- Specialist doctors' neurologists (employees of the Military Medical Academy in Belgrade, Clinical Centre of Serbia and other health institutions in Serbia that have Neurological departments and are members of the Society of Serbian Neurologists).

- Marketing experts (practitioners and experts whose profession is marketing, employed as directors of marketing agencies, directors of marketing sectors and marketing managers employed in the leading Serbian companies).
- Members of the academic community (professors and lecturers who teach marketing-related subjects at the most prestigious Serbian faculties, among others, The University of Belgrade, The University of Novi Sad and The University of Niš).

Respondents were interviewed using a questionnaire using an electronic method of inquiry over the Internet. The questionnaire contains a total of 18 questions, of which the first part is of a general character and contains three questions, while the second contains 15 questions and is directly dedicated to neuromarketing research. Within those 15 questions, respondents were asked about recognition, applicability, economy and ethics of neuromarketing. All questions were of the closed type, and measurements were nominal and ordinal. Likert's scale of attitudes, which consists of five degrees of agreement and measures the intensity and acceptance of the claim, was used. Respondents had to express their degree of agreement or disagreement in relation to each of the claims in the questionnaire. The following five-step scale was used: I do not agree at all, I do not agree, I have no opinion, I agree, I completely agree. Respondents' responses were scored, and the final score was calculated by adding points for each claim. The final result shows the degree to which respondents reacted positively or negatively in relation to the claim in the questionnaire.

In the paper, statistical data processing, the SPSS software package and statistical functions were used, as well as the χ2 test, due to the types of variables for hypothesis testing. The χ2 test calculates whether there is a statistically significant connection in the frequencies of the two attribute markers, or between the obtained frequencies and the frequencies expected in a certain hypothesis.

Statistical conclusion validity was based on a sample on which certain conclusions about the population are made (statistical set). The claim or assumption (hypothesis) was tested by standard statistical procedure of testing the hypothesis.

The hypothesis being tested by this procedure is called a zero hypothesis (H0), as opposed to an alternative hypothesis (H1), i.e. a statement that is believed in case that sampled data leads to the rejection of the zero hypothesis (Mann, 2010).

H0: Neuromarketing is a modern way of research that contributes to understanding of customer purchasing behaviour.

To verify the accuracy of the H0 hypothesis, the following research questions (RQ) were asked:

RQ1: Neuromarketing is a relatively new scientific methodology used for researching cosumer behaviour.

RQ2: In the future, it is necessary to pay more attention to neurmomarket research.

RQ3: Thanks to medical electronics, it is possible to observe and analyse the brains of consumers far more accurately than before.

RQ4: Manufacturers of new goods and services want a more realistic picture of what makes the consumer shop, which is most accurately achieved by monitoring the customer's brain.

Statistical conclusion is based on the value of test statistics. If the value of test statistics is acceptable – if the principle based on the probability value (p-values) is applied, the p-value should be greater than the level of significance), the zero hypothesis is accepted, otherwise it is rejected – the p-value being equal to or lower than the level of significance (Mann, 2010). P – the value is defined as the lowest level of significance on which the zero hypothesis is rejected.

3   Results and discussion

In the survey participated 109 respondents, 33.9% male, 66.1% female.

RQ1: Neuromarketing represents a relatively new scientific methodology for consumer behaviour research.

Table 1: Test statistics RQ1

With respect to:	Test statistics (Sig.)
Gender	0,093
Age	0,000
Vocation	0,060

There is a statistically significant difference in relation to age (Sig. <0.05).

Almost 67% of respondents agree or fully agree with statement that Neuromarketing is a relatively new scientific methodology of consumer behaviour research, while 10% disagree and almost 23% do not have an opinion.

Table 2: Test statistics RQ1- Frequency

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
I do not agree at all	1	0.9	0.9	0.9
I disagree	10	9.2	9.2	10.1
I do not have an opinion	25	22.9	22.9	33.0
I agree	59	54.1	54.1	87.2
I totally agree	14	12.8	12.8	100.0
Total	109	100.0	100.0	

Observing the answers by the age of the respondents, it is noticeable that the largest percentage of respondents aged 21-30, 41-50 and 51-60 agree or agree fully with the stated claim, 81.8%, 78.2% and 83.4%, respectively. Only respondents from the 60+ category claimed total disagreement, while 33% of them did not have an opinion on the above subject same as respondents from the 31-40 category.

We can conclude that the oldest, as well as the respondents aged 31-40 are less interested in the above subject, and mostly did not have an opinion on it.

If we observe the answers by gender, 75% of female respondents said they agreed or agreed fully with the statement, while male respondents have a slightly lower proportion of 51.3%. Over 35% of male respondents, as well as almost 17% of female ones have no opinion on this subject. It is interesting to note that 0.0% of women responded that they did not agree at all, while 2.7% of men took such a position.

Table 3: Test statistics RQ1- Gender

Neuromarketing is a relatively new scientific methodology of consumer behaviour research

Gender	I do not agree at all	I disagree	I do not have an opinion	I agree	I totally agree
Male	2,70%	10,81%	35,14%	43,24%	8,11%
Female	0,00%	8,33%	16,67%	59,72%	15,28%

We can conclude that women have clearer views on this new scientific methodology, while more than a third of the men have no opinion on this issue.

Table 4: Test statistics RQ1 - Vocation

Neuromarketing is a relatively new scientific methodology of consumer behaviour research

Vocation	I do not agree at all	I disagree	I do not have an opinion	I agree	I totally agree
Academic worker	0.00%	3.23%	12.90%	58.06%	25.81%
Neurologist specialist	0.00%	0.00%	36.36%	59.09%	4.55%
Marketing expert	1.89%	16.98%	20.75%	50.94%	9.43%
Others	0.00%	0.00%	66.67%	33.33%	0.00%

It can be concluded that academic staff, neurologists and marketing experts feel more strongly on this subject. Over 80% of academic workers agree or completely agree with the statement, while this percentage is somewhat lower with neurology and marketing experts – over 60%.

RQ2: It is necessary to pay more attention to neuromarketing research in the future.

Table 5: Test statistics RQ2

With respect to:	Test statistics (Sig.)
Gender	0,358
Age	0,875
Vocation	0,000

There is a statistically significant difference by occupation.

The largest percentage of respondents, 82.5% agree or fully agree with the following statement I consider it necessary to pay more attention to future neuromarketing research, while less than 3% disagree with it.

Observing the responses in relation to gender of the respondents, it can be clearly seen that both female and male respondents mostly either agree or fully agree with the stated

Table 6: Test statistics RQ2 - Frequency

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
I disagree	3	2.8	2.8	2.8
I do not have an opinion	16	14.7	14.7	17.4
I agree	60	55.0	55.0	72.5
I totally agree	30	27.5	27.5	100.0
Total	109	100.0	100.0	

position. With women it is 78.4%, while with men this percentage is somewhat higher, accounting for 84.7%.

Table 7. Test statistics RQ2 - Age

I consider it necessary to pay more attention to future neuromarketing research

Age	I do not agree at all	I disagree	I do not have an opinion	I agree	I totally agree
21-30	0.00%	0.00%	18.18%	36.36%	45.45%
31-40	0.00%	4.44%	20.00%	53.33%	22.22%
41-50	0.00%	3.13%	9.38%	62.50%	25.00%
51-60	0.00%	0.00%	11.11%	55.56%	33.33%
60+	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	66.67%	33.33%

Observing the responses by age structure, all respondents aged 60+ agree or fully agree with the stated position, while among the respondents of other age categories this percentage is somewhat lower at 89.9% with the respondents aged 51-60, 87.5% with those aged 41-50, 81.9% with subjects 31-40. The conclusion is that respondents of different ages believe it is necessary to pay more attention to future neuromarketing research.

Table 8. Test statistics RQ2 - Vocation

I consider it necessary to pay more attention to future neuromarketing research

Vocation	I do not agree at all	I disagree	I do not have an opinion	I agree	I totally agree
Academic worker	0.00%	0.00%	6.45%	48.39%	45.16%
Neurologist specialist	0.00%	4.55%	22.73%	72.73%	0.00%
Marketing expert	0.00%	3.77%	11.32%	54.72%	30.19%
Others	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%

It can be concluded that the academic staff, neurologist and marketing experts have stronger opinions on this topic than the respondents whose occupations are classified in the category others. None of the respondents in the others category have an opinion

on the above statement. On the other hand, over 93% of academic workers agree or completely agree with that statement, while the percentage is somewhat lower in neurology and marketing experts – 72.7% and 84.9%, respectively.

RQ3: Thanks to medical electronics, it is possible to observe and analyse the consumers' brains far more precisely than before.

Table 9. Test statistics RQ3

With respect to:	Test statistics (Sig.)
Gender	0,875
Age	0,001
Vocation	0,004

There is a statistically significant difference in terms of age and vocation.

Table 10. Test statistics RQ3- Frequency

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
I disagree	3	2.8	2.8	2.8
I do not have an opinion	13	11.9	11.9	14.7
I agree	66	60.6	60.6	75.2
I totally agree	27	24.8	24.8	100.0
Total	109	100.0	100.0	

Over 85% of the respondents agree or fully agree with the RQ3 statement, 2.8% disagree and less than 12% have no opinion on the statement.

Observing the respondents' replies by gender, one can notice uniformity in responses, so that 83.9% of male respondents and 85.1% of female ones agree or fully agree with the above statement, while 11.1% of male and 13.5% of female do not have an opinion.

Table 11. Test statistics RQ3 - Age

Thanks to medical electronics we can observe and analyse the brain of consumers much more precisely than before

Age	I do not agree at all	I disagree	I do not have an opinion	I agree	I totally agree
21-30	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	45.45%	54.55%
31-40	0.00%	0.00%	20.00%	62.22%	17.78%
41-50	0.00%	0.00%	6.25%	75.00%	18.75%
51-60	0.00%	16.67%	5.56%	38.89%	38.89%
60+	0.00%	0.00%	33.33%	66.67%	0.00%

Observing the respondents' age structure, 93.8% of the respondents in the 41-50 age group agree or fully agree with the above statement, 80% of the 31-40 age group agree or fully agree, 77.8% of the 51-60 age group agree or fully agree, and 66.67% over 60

years of age agree, and 33.33% have no opinion. On the other hand, 100% of respondents aged between 21 and 30 agree or fully agree with the above statement. The conclusion is that respondents of all ages agree or fully agree with the above statement, with the youngest group of respondents agreeing 100% and the oldest 66.67%.

Table 12. Test statistics RQ3 - Vocation

Thanks to medical electronics we can observe and analyse the brain of consumers much more precisely than before

Vocation	I do not agree at all	I disagree	I do not have an opinion	I agree	I totally agree
Academic worker	0.00%	3.23%	0.00%	54.84%	41.94%
Neurologist specialist	0.00%	4.55%	27.27%	59.09%	9.09%
Marketing expert	0.00%	1.89%	9.43%	66.04%	22.64%
Others	0.00%	0.00%	66.67%	33.33%	0.00%

It can be concluded, that academic workers, neurologists and marketing experts have stronger opinions on this subject than respondents whose occupations are classified as the "other" category. Most respondents within that category have no opinion on the subject. On the other hand, 96.7% of academic workers agree or completely agree with the statement, while the percentage is somewhat lower in neurologists, with 67.2%, and marketing experts with 88.6%.

RQ4: Manufacturers of new goods and services want a more realistic picture of what prompts consumers to purchase, which is most accurately achieved by monitoring the customer's brain.

Table 13. Test statistics RQ4

With respect to:	Test statistics (Sig.)
Gender	0,073
Age	0,435
Vocation	0,015

There is a statistically significant difference in relation to vocation.

Table 14. Test statistics RQ4 - Frequency

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
I disagree	9	8.3	8.3	8.3
I do not have an opinion	16	14.7	14.7	22.9
I agree	65	59.6	59.6	82.6
I totally agree	19	17.4	17.4	100.0
Total	109	100.0	100.0	

77% of the respondents agree with this statement, 14.7% have no opinion, while 8.3% disagree.

Over 70% of male respondents agree or fully agree with the statement, while percentage is higher in the female respondents with 80.5%, while 24,3% of male and 9,7% of female respondents do not have an opinion.

Table 15. Test statistics RQ4 - Age

The manufacturers of new goods and services want a more realistic picture of what prompts consumers to shop, which is most accurately achieved by monitoring the customer's brain

Age	I do not agree at all	I disagree	I do not have an opinion	I agree	I totally agree
21-30	0.00%	0.00%	9.09%	81.82%	9.09%
31-40	0.00%	8.89%	20.00%	57.78%	13.33%
41-50	0.00%	6.25%	12.50%	62.50%	18.75%
51-60	0.00%	11.11%	5.56%	50.00%	33.33%
60+	0.00%	33.33%	33.33%	33.33%	0.00%

Observing the age of the respondents, 81.3% of the respondents in the 41-50 age group agree or fully agree with the above statement, 71% of those in the 31-40 age group agree or fully agree, 83.3% of respondents in the 51-60 age category agree or fully agree. When it comes to those over 60, a third of them agree, a third disagrees and another third has no opinion. On the other hand, 90.9% of respondents aged 21 to 30 agree or fully agree with the above statement.

The conclusion is that respondents of all ages agree or fully agree with the above statement, with the youngest group of respondents agreeing 90.9%, and the oldest 66.67%.

Table 16. Test statistics RQ4 - Vocation

The manufacturers of new goods and services want a more realistic picture of what prompts consumers to shop, which is most accurately achieved by monitoring the customer's brain

Vocation	I do not agree at all	I disagree	I do not have an opinion	I agree	I totally agree
Academic worker	0.00%	12.90%	3.23%	48.39%	35.48%
Neurologist specialist	0.00%	9.09%	18.18%	68.18%	4.55%
Marketing expert	0.00%	5.66%	16.98%	64.15%	13.21%
Others	0.00%	0.00%	66.67%	33.33%	0.00%

It can be concluded that academic workers, neurologists and marketing experts have stronger opinions on the subject than respondents whose occupation is listed as other. Over 66% of the respondents in this category have no opinion on the above statement. On the other hand, more than 83.9% of academic workers agree or fully agree with that statement, while this percentage is slightly lower in neurologists (more than 70%) and marketing experts (more than 77%).

4 Conclusion

The subject of this paper, "Neuromarketing as a Business Strategy", is a research aimed at reaching a conclusion on whether neuromarketing, as a modern way of research, contributes to understanding of consumer purchasing behaviour. In order to verify the hypothesis, four research questions were asked. Based on the results obtained, the conclusion is that the zero hypothesis is confirmed, which means that neuromarketing is a modern research method that contributes to understanding the consumer's behaviour while purchasing a product.

Respondents from three groups relevant to this field of expertise, such as neurologists, marketing experts and the academic community, all presented their views that are extremely valuable because neuromarketing research is viewed from multiple angles. It was concluded that neuromarketing research is a relatively new scientific methodology for consumer research, that it is necessary to pay more attention to this scientific discipline in the future because it offers precision in analysing the workings of the consumer's brain, due to the significant development of medical electronics, far greater than it used to be, which is useful for manufacturers of new goods and services that want a more realistic picture of what consumers purchase and how their brain react.

Since we live in an era of consumer society that is increasingly focused on increasing consumer spending and consumption, as this is one of the key ways of surviving and growing on the market, and since neuromarketing is a modern research tool that contributes to understanding the consumer's purchasing behaviour, it can be concluded that this type of research can be treated as a business strategy in on itself, but also as a part of the overall business strategy of consumer-oriented companies.

Bearing in mind that the "others" group of respondents showed a good degree of agreement with the research questions, it follows that the next research paper should be directed two-fold. One direction would be to examine the attitudes of healthcare workers, then in those belonging to the business and the academic communities, but not those who took part in this research (neurologists, marketing experts and the academic community). Another survey would target consumers of the appropriate categories.

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20 The Consistency of Sales Force Control Systems: Management Judgement

Amadea Dobovišek[*]

Abstract: *To ensure the effective execution of the consultative sales force behavior top management must set up a control system based on consistent management policies. If it fails to do this a gap between the desired and actual behavior occurs, which may adversely affect the implementation of the company's marketing strategy. This paper discovers inconsistent use of sales force control systems in 2010 and 2018 as viewed by top management in the biggest Slovenian companies. It demonstrates that the least consistent management policy with desired consultative behavior is amount of coaching offered to salespeople by their immediate supervisors.*

Keywords: *top management, sales management, sales force control system, sales force behavior, implementation of marketing strategy*

Konsistentnost kontrolnih sistemov prodajnih kadrov: pogled menedžmenta

Povzetek: *Da bi lahko zagotovili učinkovito izvajanje svetovalnega vedenja prodajnih kadrov, morajo vrhnji menedžerji oblikovati kontrolni sistem prodajnih kadrov na osnovi konsistentnih politik upravljanja. V nasprotnem primeru pride do razkoraka med želenim in dejanskim vedenjem, kar lahko slabo vpliva na izvajanje tržne strategije podjetja. Ta raziskava razkriva nekonsistentno rabo kontrolnih sistemov prodajnih kadrov v letih 2010 in 2018, kot jo vidijo vrhnji menedžerji v največjih slovenskih podjetjih. Iz nje izhaja, da je svetovalno vedenje prodajalcev najmanj konsistentno podprto s coachingom, ki ga neposredno nadrejeni menedžerji nudijo prodajnim kadrom.*

Ključne besede: *vrhnji menedžment, prodajni menedžment, kotrolni sistem prodajnih kadrov, vedenje prodajalcev, implementacija tržne strategije*

1. Introduction

1.1. Strategic background

As a result of the overall changes in business models, the role, function, and process of sales has changed from an operational, product-based, and transactional role toward a more strategic, customer-focused and relational process of solution sales. (Vargo and Lusch, 2004; Rackham and De Vincentis, 2002). Sales job requirements have been altered to such an important degree that endeavours to secure traditional incremental changes and tactical fine-tuning undeniably fail. As a consequence, the formation of the

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selling function has inevitably become a strategic corporate task (Shapiro and Posner, 2006; Shapiro et al., 1994). This suggests a need to change the unit of analysis from the activities and attributes of the salesperson toward strategic and managerial practices (Storbacka et al., 2011). One of the most critical practices is certainly the way how a company manages and leads its salespeople.

At the same time the development of strong and enduring relationships with key customers has become accepted as a foundation for competitive advantage. Relationship selling is based on interdependence between sellers and buyers, sharing of critical information that is based on trust between the two parties, and longevity of the relationship that enables both parties to enjoy financial rewards from coordinated strategic investments (Rackham and De Vincentis, 2002; Ganesan, 1994; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). This relationship gives the seller greater insight into the buyer's latent needs, enabling the seller to develop new offerings before the competition or to augment commodity-like products with high value-added services.

At the opposite end of the continuum of selling strategies is transaction selling, a discrete activity with the transaction as the near-term outcome of the selling effort. Transaction selling is most appropriate for fairly simple products that require little service or sales support (Rackham and De Vincentis, 2002; Slater and Olson, 2000; Rackham, 1988). Thus, transaction selling tends to be more efficient for standardized products while relationship selling is more effective for complex products, products that have a degree of risk associated with them or for larger sales that represent strategic importance for buyers. For more than a decade, managers have tried to move their sales force towards relationship, or consultative or solution selling, as Rackham and De Vincentis (2002) name it. But organizations find consultative selling a major challenge.

A mistake made by management is to see consultative selling just as a technique while it requires a culture change, from top to bottom engagement and an organization wide commitment. Otherwise, the organization doesn't speak a common language, and gives out different messages. In consequence, it is a top management task to establish and employ management policies that will help salespeople building up the required competencies and will motivate them to behave in a desired way. Such policies combined together form a sales force control system (SFCS) and have been extensively addressed in academic literature (Darmon and Martin, 2011; Anderson and Onyemah, 2006; Baldauf et al., 2005; Rouziés and Macquin, 2002; Krafft, 1999; Challagalla and Shervani, 1996; Oliver and Anderson, 1994; 1995; Cravens et al., 1993; Anderson and Oliver, 1987).

1.2 Research problem

Yet trends in actual management practice are moving away from these very principles in a direction exactly opposite to what this growing body of evidence prescribes. Thus, it can be observed that companies often experience gaps between the desired and the actual sales force behavior. This finding has been clearly stated, in one or the other way, by several

different authors over the last 25 years (Darmon and Martin, 2011; Guenzi et al., 2011; Anderson and Onyemah, 2006; Steenburgh, 2006; Rouzies and Macquin, 2002; Simons, 2000; Oliver and Anderson 1995; Anderson and Oliver, 1987).

However, not many empirical researches have been carried out in this context of sales management. The distance between desired and actual behavior is a function of the quality of the sales force control system (SFCS). The shorter the distance the better the top management has done its job. The system is well established if it gives a consistent support to the desired sales force behavior. The central idea of present research refers to the question of how to design a sales force control system that will minimize a gap between the desired and the actual sales force behavior.

Anderson and Oliver (1987) conceptualize sales management control as a continuum with two extremes: outcome- and behavior-based control. Outcome control encourages and rewards salesperson results such as sales volume and profitability; behavior control encourages salesperson input, such as customer relationship building in the selling process.

Although this distinction has been widely accepted, it provides limited explanation of what induces a firm to select one (or several) specific control tool rather than another. As a consequence, a need was recognized within this study to develop a new conceptual framework that integrates the existing streams of control systems in a more coherent manner and characterizes SFCSs more precisely than by its outcome-behavior dimension.

This paper proposes to integrate two disconnected literatures, customer value creation in the selling–buying process and SFCS, into a unified framework. Although, by keeping the old rationale, the sales force control system is thus characterized along a new dimension of consultative -versus- transactional behavior based control. The replacement of the dimension offers new insights to sales research. It contributes to a better understanding about how SFCSs that meet the objectives of senior executives in terms of relational versus transactional salespeople's performances should be established

In compliance with this reasoning, the main goal of the present paper is to analyze consistency of the control tools as viewed by Slovenian top managers on the basis of the newly proposed framework and compare consistency of SFCSs in 2010 and 2018. The more consistent the control system, the smaller the gap between desired and actual sales force behavior and the more effectively is implemented the planned marketing strategy.

The final aim of the study is to detect which management policy in the research companies is the least consistent with desired sales force behavior, thus explaining which one has a detrimental effect on salespeople's behavior. Also, it will try to demonstrate which system components have improved since 2010 and which still lag behind.

The ability to maintain consistency of influence intent with desired sales force behavior lies entirely in hands of senior executives. The more they become aware of inconsistencies within the control system the more likely they are going to save the

situation promptly and less damage will be inflicted on company's performance.

2. Methods

Initial step of the present research study has its origin in the year 2010 when consistency of SFCSs was tested for the first time. Eight years later the research was repeated in the same companies on the basis of the same research method.

2.1. Research sample

In order to carry out this study, the research sample was determined on the basis of 200 largest Slovenian companies in terms of two simultaneous criteria: "sales revenues" and "number of employees" according to the register of the Slovenian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (2009). These criteria were chosen with the intention to capture companies that operate in global markets and strive to pay full attention to sales force management. Companies whose main activity was retailing were omitted as sales approach required to serve consumers at the point of sale differs significantly from the one in B2B field.

After a thorough study of the listed companies, mostly from publically available sources, 30 manufacturing and service companies were selected, and their CEOs invited to participate in the reserach. The dialogue was finally established with 8 of them.

2.2. Data collection and research procedure

The reason why respondents were addressed personally lies in the complex and relatively new research topic. The respondents were initially informed about new concepts, paradigms, and vocabulary, so they could provide important insights into the examined situation. Data were then collected with the help of semi-structured questionnaire which has been developed on the model of Anderson and Onyemah (2006) and expanded by Dobovišek (2012).

The policies and practices that managers employ to adjust sales force behavior to customer needs make up a sales force control system which can be categorized into several components. Anderson and Onyemah (2006) used eight components in their model while Dobovišek (2012) added four additional ones. These components reflect the key questions senior management needs to ask about the way it conducts its sales force behavior. The senior managers evaluated each of the 12 statements on the Likert scale from 1 to 7 where 1 means they strongly agree with the first part of the statement and 7 means strongly agree with the second part of the statement. The answers show how consistent are the system components with one another and with the desired sales force behavior expressed by senior executives in the initial conversation.

Prior to formal data collection the conduct of a couple of pilot questionnaires had been carried out which were not included in the research. They helped to refine the data collection plans with respect to both the content of the data and the procedures to be followed (Yin 2003).

2.3. Data analysis

To get a sense of how consistent the sales efforts of the company are, Anderson and Onyemah (2006) suggested it is useful to draw the system graphically. The answers can be observed as a graphical line plotted where approach to sales force management falls on the "outcome - behavior control continuum" for each of the system components. If the system is consistent, the points should fall roughly in a straight line. If the system isn't consistent a pronounced zigzag design would be observed.

The straight line also needs to be in the right place on the »outcome - behavior control continuum«. The location will depend on the company's situation – the constraints it faces and the resources, strategy, internal culture, and time-horizon it has, disclose Anderson and Onyemah (2006) but also the way customers perceive value proposition of the company and selling approach that is consequently desired by management adds Dobovišek (2012).

How senior executives answer, helps determining whether a company employs an outcome control system (enhancing transactional sale), a behavior control system (enhancing consultative sale), or some combination of the two. The likelihood of having elements that are inconsistent with each other and this is when they don't reflect the same degree of outcome or behavior control philosophy (Onyemah and Anderson, 2009) is quite feasable. Consequently, the elements do not depict the perfect coalignment which has an adverse effect on salesperson performance.

3 Results

Findings of this paper show that in either year 2010 and 2018 top managers identify consultative selling as an approach which will allow the research companies to best realize their marketing objectives. This fact was established from the initial personal conversations which took place before individual manager started answering the 12 questions.

Second, the results supported by selected data show that in the either year period, sales force control systems are in general inconsistent in almost all companies. Inconsistency could be already observed at first glance from the zigzag line drawn for each company and as a common pattern during the data analysis. However, in 2018 some significant improvements have been made in three companies compared to the year 2010, while in another three companies changes in consistency of SFCS have been actually made for worse. In two companies the inconsistency was rather miner already in 2010 as well as in 2018.

The numbers presented in Table 1 (year 2010) and Table 2 (year 2018) present the answers of individual CEO on the continuum of Likert scale between 1 and 7 for each structured question. These questions epitomize the main management policies and their orientation on the "transaction - consultative control continuum". If the selected number extends somewhere between 5 and 7, the probability that the company applies a management policy which controls behaviour of salespeople (consultative approach), is

big. If it extends between 1 and 3, the probability for an outcome control (transactional approach) is more likely. By choosing the number 4 a CEO indicates that the management policy is defined in between the two desired options or stuck somewhere in the middle.

As an assurance of complete anonymity was given to the research companies, they are exposed in tables rather with alphabetical letters than with their real names.

Table 1. Analysis of the results in the year 2010

Structured questions	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
1. Focus of performance criteria	5	5	3	3	6	4	4	6
2. Number of performance criteria	3	2	4	2	2	2	7	6
3. Transparency of evaluation criteria	3	4	2	2	1	6	2	3
4. Degree of management intervention	5	3	6	4	6	6	6	6
5. Frequency of contact	3	5	6	6	6	4	4	7
6. Degree of management monitoring	5	5	4	6	4	4	7	6
7. Course of training	2	5	4	6	2	6	7	7
8. Amount of coaching offered	5	2	6	4	5	6	7	6
9. Compensation scheme	2	6	4	6	5	4	6	6
10. Shared compensation	2	3	5	6	5	4	6	5
11. Inter-functional coordination	6	6	3	4	6	6	6	6
12. Source of brand equity	6	5	7	7	7	7	7	7

The answers of CEOs on Likert scale from 1 to 7 for each structured question

Table 2. Analysis of the results in the year 2018

Structured questions	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
1. Focus of performance criteria	6	5	3	6	5	4	5	4
2. Number of performance criteria	5	6	3	4	2	4	5	7
3. Transparency of evaluation criteria	5	6	6	3	4	5	6	7
4. Degree of management intervention	7	6	2	6	5	3	6	6
5. Frequency of contact	7	6	5	5	5	5	7	7
6. Degree of management monitoring	6	7	5	5	4	4	6	6
7. Course of training	6	5	4	4	4	4	5	6
8. Amount of coaching offered	6	4	3	4	3	3	3	5
9. Compensation scheme	3	7	3	6	4	4	6	6
10. Shared compensation	5	7	5	6	5	5	7	6
11. Inter-functional coordination	7	6	5	6	6	6	6	6
12. Source of brand equity	7	5	3	6	6	5	5	6

In order to determine the common pattern of control consistency or rather inconsistency the answers from the obtained data were then grouped and as a result the most frequent CEOs' judgments could be detected on the continuum (Table 3 for 2010 and Table 4 for 2018). Each column tells us how many answers were collected for a given structured question on the spread between 1 and 7. The most common answers have a bold face. As a matter of fact, inconsistency could be detected in both years.

The tentative results in 2010 indicate that performance evaluation items (reflected in the first three questions) are the most inconsistent with desired consultative sales force behavior but also with other sales management approaches. This mismatch means that managers pay a lot of attention to behavior control (consultative selling) but at the same time send strong signals that they evaluate salespeople's quick achievement of sales results (transactional selling).

In the year 2018 »amount of coaching« seems to be the least consistent management policy even though this was not the case eight years ago. At the same time »course of training« is stuck in the middle of the continuum for half of companies being almost as problematic as it was already in the year 2010. Mismatch of these management policies imply that senior executives do not pay enough attention to provide their salespeople with competencies that would qualify them more accurately for consultative selling.

Table 3. Common pattern of inconsistency in SFCS – in the year 2010

Structured questions	Appraisal on Likert scale from 1 to 7						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Focus of performance criteria	0	0	2	2	2	2	0
2. Number of performance criteria	0	4	1	1	0	1	1
3. Transparency of evaluation criteria	1	3	2	1	0	1	0
4. Degree of management intervention	0	0	1	1	0	5	1
5. Frequency of contact	0	0	1	2	1	3	1
6. Degree of management monitoring	0	0	0	3	2	1	1
7. Course of training	0	2	0	1	1	1	2
8. Amount of coaching offered	0	1	0	1	2	3	1
9. Compensation scheme	0	1	0	4	1	4	0
10. Shared compensation	0	1	1	1	3	2	0
11. Inter-functional coordination	0	0	1	1	0	6	0
12. Source of brand equity	0	0	0	0	1	1	6

Table 4. Commmon pattern of inconsistency – in the year 2018

Structured questions	Appraisal on Likert scale from 1 to 7						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Focus of performance criteria	0	0	1	2	3	2	0
2. Number of performance criteria	0	1	1	2	2	1	1
3. Transparency of evaluation criteria	0	0	1	1	2	3	1
4. Degree of management intervention	0	1	1	0	1	4	1
5. Frequency of contact	0	0	0	0	4	1	3
6. Degree of management monitoring	0	0	2	2	2	3	1
7. Course of training	0	0	0	4	2	2	0
8. Amount of coaching offered	0	0	4	2	1	1	0
9. Compensation scheme	0	0	2	2	0	3	1
10. Shared compensation	0	0	0	1	3	2	2
11. Inter-functional coordination	0	0	0	0	2	4	2
12. Source of brand equity	0	0	1	0	3	3	1

4. Discussion

Some insightful theoretical efforts have already addressed aspects of management control systems in general (Simons, 2000) and in particular for sales forces (Anderson and Oliver, 1995; 1994; 1987). At the same time fewer studies have been carried out from the empirical point of view in the field of holistic sales force control system (Anderson and Onyemah, 2006), thus the attempt of the present study is to rectify this deficiency.

The picture that emerges from the findings of this research study tends to confirm the inconsistent use of sales force control systems in the years 2010 and 2018, the same as it was established in the studies based on relating research concepts (Guenzi et al., 2011; Anderson and Onyemah, 2006;). The obtained results point to a gap between the desired and the actual sales force behaviour. However, the gap has decreased in 2018 compared to 2010, while effectiveness of strategy implementation should has increased accordingly.

Although it supports prior study from the field of sales management, provided by Anderson and Onyemah (2006), this study offers a more accurate picture of how senior executives affect the desired sales force attitudes and behavior. By connecting two concepts, sales force control system and customer value creation, in a unified research framework, the explanation of why companies choose specific control system over another has been improved.

According to Anderson and Onyemah (2006) management control entails smart performance evaluation aligned with compensation scheme, coaching and supervision, while Dobovišek (2012) believes that well considered content of trainings, shared compensation issues, integration between functions and impact of sales force behavior on brand equity should be also included in the research framework.

When the influence intent is to increase the quality level of transaction-oriented activities, managers may rely on tools such as monitoring the final output, using simple performance measures and offering little support in sense of supervision, training and coaching. When the influence intent is to increase the quality level of customer relationships, managers may rely on tools such as salespeople's formal training or skill development programs, frequent contacts with salespeople, heavy interventions in the selling process and well considered evaluation and reward systems. To manage it requires far more care and attention of senior executives than what is necessary for having a transactional sales force.

The results are interesting particularly in perspective of consultative selling which has been broadly desired by respondents in both examined years, just so as it is suggested in theory by Rackham and De Vincentis (2002). But in practice, as it is gathered from executives' judgement, applied management policies do not fully support the desired sales force behavior.

As it could be observed in 2010, research companies share the characteristics that would best correspond to consultative behavior control firms but their managers seem too apply above average level of outcome evaluation methods with relatively big emphasis on quantifiable results like sales volume and profit. In the absence of better-defined performance criteria, the company is likely to incur significant opportunity costs in the form of poor sales personnel decisions. As bottom-line orientation prevails and percentage of salary in compensation plan is simultaneously high (behavior control), it's obvious that sales people get confused.

The typical mistake management does in almost every company when designing the compensation system is to select the easiest measureable criteria and this is usually a sales volume. This is the case in majority of the research companies even though senior executives expect salespeople to reinforce the relationship with customers. Rewards should be based on having accomplished something that managers wanted sales forces to do (Miller, 2001), so the care should be taken not only on financial measures but also on those criteria that measure market response as well. This is certainly more difficult to measure but not impossible (Shapiro et al., 1994). If sales volume is the main performance criteria, salespeople will do everything to achieve the quota no matter how or with what kind of customers.

For creating durable performance change it is equally important how senior executives supervise their salespeople (Oliver and Anderson, 1994; Anderson and Oliver 1987;). In complex environment where consultative selling has precedence over transactional selling it's more likely for managers to offer a substantial amount of supervision to their sales forces (Steenburgh 2006). As a matter of fact heavy supervision of senior executives is detected in most of the researched companies, meaning that frequent contacts with salespeople are regulated and serious interest for salespeople work is established to the point that many important decisions in the sales process are taken by senior executives. However, there is a question raising up about whether or not senior executives make the best use of their frequent contacts with sales forces. Instead of intervening whenever needed, more emphasis would probably need to be put on coaching or even empowering.

Also, in 2018 all research companies use behaviour-oriented control systems, demonstrating significant steps in direction of evaluation improvements compared to 2010. Managers focus on how results are achieved, giving special attention to selection of performance criteria that focus on factors controllable by salespeople and desired by executives, compensating sales reps' performance accordingly, having regular contact with salespeople and monitoring the reps' activities intensely. Yet, for all their interactions, the managers don't coach as much as true consultative behavior control system calls for.

The question of coaching cannot be properly addressed unless it is understood as a sequel of training that would qualify sales people for consultative selling. Course of training has

been therefore added as a new component in the research framework (Dobovišek, 2012). When serving major accounts or customers with special requirements - as it is the case in the research companies - salespeople should receive extensive training and coaching even after they have been with the company for a long time (Steenburgh, 2006). A major account manager for instance, would need to develop ability to understand strategic issues of the business he or she manages (Shapiro et al., 1994).

While the two competency creation components were not so problematic in the year 2010, course of training and especially amount of coaching have become the least consistent management policies within SFCS. Knowledge gained at trainings if not sustained with coaching has a short duration and can evaporate fast (Rackham and De Vincentis, 2002; Shapiro et al., 1994). Thus, carrying out coaching as a correction measure, should be of much greater interest of senior executives.

As Rackham and De Vincentis (2002) noted, sales forces cannot achieve sales objectives isolated but as an integral part of company's value creation and value delivery system. Even more so when company approaches its customers in a consultative manner. In such a case it is essential that functions are well connected to the point that they share processes, metrics and reward systems (Kotler et al., 2006). Further from that, a legitimate need to behavior control is needed when behavior of sales people becomes a significant source of the company's brand equity (Anderson and Onyemah, 2006). In that case it is important for sales and other functions to reach the agreement which common activities to concentrate on in order to strengthen the brand position of their products or services.

The overall complexity of operations and differences in orientation between the functions inevitably create tensions in internal interactions (Steenburgh, 2006). Therefore, it was deemed essential to transform this important item into components of SFCS (Dobovišek, 2012). But curiously enough, almost none inconsistent approach in dealing with these management policies ("shared compensation", "inter-functional coordination«, "source of brand equity") was detected in the research companies neither in 2010 nor in 2018.

Findings of this paper call into question the widespread assumption that sales force control system in a particular company can operate successfully without focusing critical top management attention on its formation. As Simons (2000) observed without effective performance measures and controls, inefficiencies build, and market opportunities are missed. My research returns suggest that senior executives still underestimate the issue of sales management, leaving it too often simply in hands of sales managers who are neither empowered nor qualified for making the most important decisions regarding the sales issues.

This entails that impact of senior executives on sales management is not turned to advantage of the company, as it should, but is rather impediment to effective sales management which has become indispensable for successful implementation of any marketing strategy. Understanding which inconsistencies appear in SCFS is important because such understanding can help guiding actions towards improvements in building

more effective SFCSs. This implies that findings can serve as significant guidelines for managers when they plan and design sales management policies in order to control desired behaviour of their salespeople.

5 Conclusion

5.1 Contributions

Previous studies have already defined a SFCS as an orgnization's set of procedures for monitoring, directing, evaluating, and compensating its employees. This functional definition emphasizes the broad categories of actions that managers take in order to influence the sales force performance. Although the relevance of sales force control systems to successful change achievement has been conceptually acknowledged, there is still a gap in the research about several issues.

This study has addressed some of them. First, it has proposed a new conceptual framework that investigates unexplored aspect of sales force control practices and second, it has offered insight into SFCSs according to judgment of Slovenian senior executives in the years 2010 and 2018. The framework of this study represents an important extension (not a replication) of the knowledge pertaining to the possible effects of SFCS.

SFCSs have been mainly characterized along one dimension, based on behavior- versus outcome- control taxonomy. This study introduced or rather replaced the existing dimension with another one, specified as "customer value creation in the selling-buying process". I maintain that this new dimension, as opposed to the old one, explains better why companies should select a particular control system philosophy.

This new distinction based on transactional or consultative behavior of salespeople also rectifies competing perspectives about multiple objectives faced by management, like for example short and long-term goals of the company. When senior executives recognize consultative selling as the most appropriate mode for their customers, they also gain a long - term over the short- term perspective which must become an unalienable part of a company's culture and mentality.

The type of control approach that managers follow should dictate the nature and quality of management policies they apply for exerting this control. In addition to previous study who analysed quality of SFCSs through 8 components, this paper added 4 new ones in the research procedure. They complete the whole spectrum of desired activities, proceeding from the external towards the internal actions, thus linking up the field performance and interactions within the company. In this way the value being promised to the extrinsic customers can be better completed and delivered.

This paper also reveals that creating customer value in relationship selling requires management engagement and active cooperation with the sales force of a level significantly in excess of what senior executives are ready to admit or even capable to understand. The latter seems to be the main reason for inconsistent use of SFCSs and major obstacle for more effective strategy implementation.

5.2 Research limitations

One of the greatest limitations of this study is the small research sample. The same difficult as it was to find companies to participate in the research study was to convince general managers to validate the research results. Actually, there were only two companies whose general managers accepted presentation of my findings and agreed upon them. Thus, a validation of data findings presents second limitation of this study.

Deficiency in the study could have been introduced because SFCSs were not observed directly but judged from how executives describe to manage their salespeople. Nevertheless, my data gathering methods, especially the combination of questionnaire and personal conversation in the research process provide substantial degree of reliance upon captured information.

Finally, senior executives play an important role in managing sales people whether they are doing that intentionally or not. However, it is unclear the extent to which this impact would have looked different under the same set of senior executives in both examined years. Interesting enough, that in two companies which provided the same respondents in 2010 and 2018 some marked improvements were noticed in their system consistency.

5.3 Directions for future research

This paper generated a new research approach that can guide further research into investigating the impact senior executives have on sales management. Ideas around the convergence and integration of SFCS and value creation concepts will be, I believe, over the next few years an area of increasing interest.

Given the fact that prior work has not discussed control systems in combination with sales force behavior desired to create the largest value for customers in the sales process, I suggest that future researchers test my proposition on a bigger number of companies by including observation of salespeople's actual behavior, thus helping my conclusions to become more explicit. Research to address this question might offer useful and interesting insights.

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21 A Cross-cultural Perspective of Consumer Ethics and Misbehaviours

Natalija Mijaljević[*]

Abstract: *HR management and marketing psychologists could better understand the benefits of creating loyal customers as loyalty might prevent consumer misbehaviour. The aim is to identify some of the most frequent consumer misbehaviour and to relate them with demographic variables and cross-cultural differences of two countries. The study was conducted based on existing research (Vitell, Muncy, 1992) and results indicate that demographic variables determine consumer behaviour. Fear of legal consequences has slight impact on shoplifting. Personal financial situation, loyalty of consumers and their feelings towards the company and staff do impact ethics.*
Keywords: consumers; ethics; marketing; HRM; behaviour

Međukulturalna perspektiva etike i nedoličnog ponašanja potrošača

Sažetak: *Upravitelj ljudskih resursa i marketinški psiholozi mogli bi bolje razumjeti prednosti kreiranja lojalnih kupaca, jer lojalnost može spriječiti loša ponašanja potrošača. Cilj ovog članka je identificirati neke od najčešćih lođih ponašanja potrošača i povezati ih s demografskim varijablama i međukulturalnim razlikama dviju zemalja. Istraživanje je provedeno na temelju postojećih istraživanja (Vitell, Muncy, 1992), a rezultati pokazuju da demografske varijable određuju ponašanje potrošača. Strah od pravnih posljedica ima mali utjecaj na pojavnost krađa. Osobna financijska situacija, lojalnost potrošača i njihovi osjećaji prema tvrtki i osoblju utječu na etiku.*
Ključne riječi: *potrošači; etika; Marketing; HRM; ponašanje*

1 Introduction

The objectives for this research are to find the main drivers of misbehaviours in one developed (Canada) and one developing country (Croatia) with comparative analysis of the two. The goal is to help (HR) management and marketing management to understand implications behind (un)ethics.

The motive for this research was concerned with culture that is considered to be the driver of (un)ethics. The researcher also wanted to explore the effect of consumers' loyalty and whether financial crisis affects misbehaviour occurrence. The implications that disobeying law has on the occurrence of misbehaviour in developed and developing countries was considered. However, Vitell, Singhapakdi and Thomas (2001) argue that people rely more on their perceptions of what is good and what is wrong rather than on fear of punishment. People usually insist more on their rights and are less willing to obey

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their consumer's responsibilities (Ha, 2013). An article by Vitell and Muncy (1992) is a valuable overview of consumer misbehaviours and served as basis for developing survey by Al-Khatib, Vitell, Rawwas (1997) and also as basis for this study.

Research problems are:
- What effects have financial crisis and high prices on consumer ethics?
- What influence do cultural differences have on consumer misbehaviour?
- Does loyalty towards the supplier affect the customers? Are there benefits for HRM to train retail staff in order to prevent or minimize misbehaviours?
- What are some of the excuses and justifications for misbehaviours?
- What implications do legal consequences have on consumer misbehaviour?
- What influence do demographic variables have on consumer ethics?

Consumer misbehaviour is often identified with thefts. However, there are many other forms of unethical consumer behaviour that distort decent and respectful transactions (Berry and Seiders, 2008). Such misbehaviour affects retailers but also employees and decent customers. Besides being directed at gaining material benefits, it is often directed towards property (vandalism) and towards physical or psychological abuse of employees or other customers (Fullerton and Punj, 1993). Losses are induced not just by direct unethical behaviour but also by increase in CCTV and additional security staff that serve as deterrents and may even have the opposite effect (Kallis and Vanier, 1985; Fullerton and Punj, 1997).

As most business literature is focused on organizational ethics perceived from the seller's side (Ha, 2013), customer ethics is a neglected part of business and marketing ethics (Brinkmann and Peattie, 2008); there is, therefore a need to put consumers' (un)ethics in context. Brinkmann and Peattie (2008) found a connection between marketing ethics and consumer ethics in a way that social responsibility of business has impact on social responsibility (ethics) of consumers.

2   Methods

The choice of positivist epistemological stance for this paper stems from the notion that sensations and intuitions are not as accurate as measurable objective paradigms (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson, 2012). The research design of this paper involves cross-sectional survey and usage of secondary data.

Secondary archival data was based on scientific articles, statistics, retailer reports, and reports given by government institutions. The web-based survey consisted of structured multiple-choice self-completion questions plus the questions concerning respondents' country of origin, age, frequency of visiting retail stores, gender, education level, and household income. The survey had only three pages of short questions in order to maximize the response rate.

Vitell & Muncy's (1992) survey statements that refer to misbehaviours in retail stores served as a basis for this study. First 14 statements of the survey were adopted from their research and the other 14 were composed in a manner to fit into their research of

unethical behaviour. The five-point Likert scale used by this survey measured the frequency of behaviours that actually occur and the frequency of certain behaviours that respondents would commit in hypothetic situations. It had quantitative values as follows: Always (1), Very often (2), Sometimes (3), Rarely (4), and Never (5). The sampling method was snowball sampling and was brought to the respondents via emails and Facebook pages.

At the beginning of the analysis demographic variables and characteristics of respondents were analyzed according to the percentage of respondents in every demographic group. The impact of demographic variables (gender, age, education level, and household income) on consumer behaviour was analyzed using Chi-square test. The impact of financial crisis and fear of legal consequences and the impact of loyalty towards the supplier were analyzed using percentages and means of the responses. Chi-square test was used to explore cross-cultural differences between Canada and Croatia and its p-values were taken as the determinants of significance.

3   Results

4.1 Demographic variables and characteristics of respondents

Table 1 – Demographic characteristics of the respondents

	CANADA **(122)**		CROATIA **(192)**	
	Number of respondents	Percentage*	Number of respondents	Percentage
AGE GROUP				
18-30	41	34%	76	40%
31-40	41	34%	80	42%
41-50	23	19%	23	12%
Above 51	17	14%	13	7%
GENDER				
Female	92	75%	163	85%
Male	30	25%	29	15%
LEVEL OF EDUCATION				
Primary school	1	1%	5	3%
Secondary school	26	21%	100	52%
College (less than 4 years)	39	32%	36	19%
University (4 years or more)	44	36%	48	25%
Master of Science or Doctorate	12	10%	3	2%

CANADA (currency: Canadian Dollar)			CROATIA (currency: Croatian Kuna)		
household income**	Number of respondents	Percentage	household income**	Number of respondents	Percentage
1,600 – 3,500	40	33%	2,501 – 5,000	54	28%
3,501 – 7,000	45	37%	5,001 – 10,000	73	38%
7,001 – 10,000	19	16%	10,000 – 12,000	33	17%
More than 10,001	14	11%	More than 12,001	17	9%

* The percentages were rounded up to the next whole number, so the sum of the percentages is sometimes more than 100.

** The salaries have been calculated and adapted to each countries' standard: one minimal salary; between one minimal salary and one average salary; between one and two average salaries; between two average salaries and one managing director's salary; and more than one managing director's salary (Salary explorer, 2012; Bureau of statistics, 2014).

3.2 The impact of demographic variables: Canada

3.2.1 Gender

In all of the statement's females are less likely to commit such behaviour and their personal financial situation has less impact on their behaviour in retail stores.

Table 2 – Gender as the predictor of consumer behaviour in Canada

	Mean		Chi square p-value
	Females	Males	
If it would be possible, I would change price tags on a product in order to pay less than the real price is.	4.28	4.27	.012
I taste products (e.g. grapes or cherries) at the store without the intention of buying any.	4.31	3.83	.046
I get into verbal disputes with retail staff (sales personnel, security staff or managers).	4.50	4.17	.033
I get into physical altercations with retail staff.	4.96	4.63	.005
My personal financial situation affects the fairness of my behaviour in retail stores.	4.36	4.00	.013

3.2.2 Age

The following three statements in are impacted by age.

Table 3 – Age as the predictor of consumer behaviour in Canada

	Mean				Chi square p-value
	18 – 30	31 – 40	41 – 50	Over 51	
If it would be possible, I would change price tags on a product in order to pay less than the real price is.	3.63	4.61	4.52	4.71	.015
When I get too much change back, I tell the cashier.	2.49	2.00	1.96	2.06	.025
If someone left change at the cash register, I would take it pretending it was mine.	4.51	4.83	4.61	4.94	.006

3.2.3 Education

Moderate but significant relationship between education level and behaviour has been shown in three statements (*If it would be possible, I would change price tags on a product in order to pay less than the real price is. If a retailer that I visit is known for its ethical behaviours towards staff, environment or law, I act more fairly. When I believe that the store has fair prices, I act more fairly.*).

Three statements show evidence that, as the level of education of respondents is higher, their tendency towards the answer "Never" is lower (*I would lie about my child's age in order to get a discount. I would return a product to the store and claim it was a gift even if*

it wasn't. I return a product after it goes on sale and then buy it again at a lower price.). This means that, as the level of education is higher, the higher are the chances respondents will commit these types of misbehaviour. In all other statements as the level of education increases, the tendency towards the answer "Never" increases.

Interestingly, statements that refer to personal financial situation and personal feelings and stances towards retailers (*My personal financial situation affects the fairness of my behaviour in retail stores. If a retailer that I visit is known for its ethical behaviours towards staff, environment or law, I act more fairly. When I believe that the store has fair prices, I act more fairly.*), show that as the level of education increases, respondents gravitate more towards the answer "Never" - the impact of personal financial situation and perceptions about the supplier have less impact as the level of education is higher.

3.2.4 Household income

Among thirteen statements, nine of them show that, as the income increases, the possibility to commit these types of misbehaviour decreases.

The last statement in the table shows moderate but significant evidence that as the income of the respondents increases, the effect of financial situation on behaviour in retail stores decreases.

Table 4 – Household income as the predictor of consumer behaviour in Canada

	Mean					Chi square p-value
	1,600 $ or less	1,601 $ - 3,500 $	3,501$ - 7,000 $	7,001 $ - 10,000 $	More than 10,001 $	
If a clerk at the cash register asks me about the price of an unpriced item, I lie to him/her.	3.50	4.78	4.78	4.95	4.86	.000
I return a damaged item even though I damaged it.	3.50	4.40	4.64	4.47	4.43	.000
When I get too much change back, I tell the cashier.	1.25	2.68	1.71	2.84	1.50	.018
I would lie about my child's age in order to get a discount.	3.00	4.00	4.36	4.26	4.29	.002
If it would be possible, I would use coupons that are for different products than the ones I am buying.	2.75	4.18	4.53	3.79	4.36	.003
If it would be possible, I would use coupons that have expired.	2.00	4.05	4.07	3.74	4.57	.014
If I like a product but can't afford it, I steal it if the opportunity arises.	4.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.71	.001
If I like a product, I steal it just for fun if the opportunity arises.	4.00	4.98	4.98	4.90	4.71	.020
I get into verbal disputes with retail staff (sales personnel, security staff or managers).	4.00	4.48	4.38	4.42	4.50	.000
I get into physical altercations with retail staff.	4.00	4.93	4.91	4.90	4.86	.000
The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.	4.00	4.80	5.00	4.84	4.50	.000

	Mean					Chi square p-value
	1,600 $ or less	1,601 $ - 3,500 $	3,501$ - 7,000 $	7,001 $ - 10,000 $	More than 10,001 $	
If someone left change at the cash register, I would take it pretending it was mine.	3.75	4.55	4.87	4.79	4.71	.000
My personal financial situation affects the fairness of my behaviour in retail stores.	3.75	4.30	4.24	4.53	4.07	.047

Although the differences in responses between five income categories of respondents are significant, the trend that would show the increase or the decrease of mean numbers cannot be established.

Four statements show moderate significance:
- *When I get too much change back, I tell the cashier.*
- *If it would be possible, I would use coupons that have expired.*
- *If I like a product, I steal it just for fun if the opportunity arises.*
- *My personal financial situation affects the fairness of my behaviour in retail stores.*

All other statements in the table show strong or very strong evidence in favour of the hypothesis that the household income impacts the behaviour of consumers.

3.3 The impact of demographic variables: Croatia

3.3.1 Gender

All five statements show strong or very strong evidence in favour of gender differences. Also, in all of them means of female respondents are higher than those of male respondents which means that males are more likely to commit these types of consumer misbehaviour.

Table 5 – Gender as the predictor of consumer behaviour in Croatia

	Mean		Chi square p-value
	Females	Males	
If a clerk at the cash register asks me about the price of an unpriced item, I lie to him/her.	4.94	4.79	.007
I get into physical altercations with retail staff.	5.00	4.86	.000
The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.	4.90	4.52	.010
In order to avoid waiting in the line, I go to the cash register that is for maximum five products even if I have more than five.	4.51	3.72	.001
If someone left change at the cash register, I would take it pretending it was mine.	4.92	4.48	.006

3.3.2 Age

In seven statements age is a predictor of consumer behaviour. The means of two of them (*When I get too much change back, I tell the cashier. I act more fairly when I am at my preferred retail store.*) show that consumer loyalty is of less importance to them in Croatia.

The other five statements describe typical consumer misbehaviour and it is noticeable that, as the age increases, consumer misbehaviour in these types of unethical conduct also increases.

Table 6 – Age as the predictor of consumer behaviour in Croatia

	Mean				Chi square p-value
	18 – 30	31 – 40	41 – 50	Over 51	
If it would be possible, I would change price tags on a product in order to pay less than the real price is.	4.54	4.71	4.70	3.77	.009
If a clerk at the cash register asks me about the price of an unpriced item, I lie to him/her.	4.97	4.91	4.83	4.77	.019
When I get too much change back, I tell the cashier.	2.36	2.16	1.74	3.15	.033
If it would be possible, I would use coupons that have expired.	4.51	4.68	4.43	3.92	.002
I return a product after it goes on sale and then buy it again at a lower price.	4.61	4.66	4.26	4.23	.029
The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.	4.86	4.95	4.65	4.38	.005
I act more fairly when I am at my preferred retail store.	2.83	3.14	2.91	3.62	.001

3.3.3 Education

Considering educational levels of respondents in Croatia, there are significant differences in consumer behaviour in only one statement. It shows that the category with the highest level of education (MSc or PhD) will actually most likely return damaged item if they damaged it.

3.3.4 Household income

Household income shows significant importance in Croatia also in only one statement - respondents with higher household income are less likely to lie about the price of an unpriced item.

3.4 The impact of financial crisis and fear of legal consequences

It is reasonable to assume that fear of legal consequences has some impact in human behaviour if the punishments are high (Canada has stronger punishments than Croatia). As expected, the percentage of people who are affected by such fear is high (51% of respondents in Canada and 53% of respondents in Croatia answered that this fear

"Always" prevents them). However, there is still a big number of respondents who chose the answer "Never" (31% in Canada and 41% in Croatia) which indicates that legal consequences are not taking as much effect. It doesn't mean that these respondents steal; it may be the case that something else prevents them from stealing (like personal moral values or the feeling of shame if they were stealing). Still, the means are 2.57 and 2.77 which is under the neutral point of the scale (3.0) and indicates that fear of legal consequences plays some role in ethical behaviour.

Statements that refer to personal financial situation are under numbers 23, 24, and 16. Majority of respondents answered that price of the product will not stimulate them to steal it and that they will not try to steal it if they can't afford it. The means of these answers are close to 5.0. However, the statement *My personal financial situation affects the fairness of my behaviour in retail stores* served as a sort of control question and showed slightly different results. It showed that personal financial situation (that will sometimes cause the price of the product to be too high and that respondents will be unable to afford it) has a greater impact in ethical behaviour to some extent than they admitted in abovementioned statements. The means for this statement is 4.27 and 4.34 which indicates that financial situation has some impact in consumer ethical behaviour.

Considering excuses and justifications for misbehaviour, statements 23, 24, 16, and 17 offered a small amount of possibilities in order to explore are financials, prices of products, or thrill and excitement causing thefts. Except the moderate but significant evidence provided in answers to statement 23, there is no strong connection between these motives and unethical behaviour.

Table 7 − The impact of financial crisis and fear of legal consequences

CANADA		%					Mean	Chi square p-value
CROATIA		Always (1)	Very often (2)	Sometimes (3)	Rarely (4)	Never (5)		
22.	Fear of legal consequences prevents me from stealing.	51	8	6	4	31	2.57	.017
		53	2	3	2	41	2.77	
23.	The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.	1	1	1	11	87	4.82	.043
		1	2	2	3	93	4.84	
24.	My personal financial situation affects the fairness of my behaviour in retail stores.	4	2	17	15	61	4.27	.100
		8	2	8	13	69	4.34	
16.	If I like a product but can't afford it, I steal it if the opportunity arises.	2	0	0	0	98	4.93	.058
		0	0	0	2	98	4.98	
17.	If I like a product, I steal it just for fun if the opportunity arises.	2	0	1	2	96	4.90	.172
		0	0	0	1	99	4.99	

Among these five statements that refer to the impact of financial crisis and fear of legal consequences only two of them show moderate but significant differences in Chi square

analysis between Canada and Croatia (22 and 23). The difference between two countries is still not as big as could be expected due to the differences between them in laws (they are stricter in Canada) and the living standards.

3.5 The impact of loyalty towards the supplier

The answers for statements 25, 26, 27, and 28 indicate that perceived fairness of the retailer and personal feelings towards retailer and staff have some impact in consumer ethics. Although the means are mostly not very far from the neutral point of the scale (3.00), they show that people tend to act more fairly when they perceive the retailer and the staff positively. These results also show a significant difference in Chi square p-values between two countries (significant for statements 25, 27, and 28).

Also, these statements served as a sort of control. As can be assumed, people often fail to admit their faults and they often provide socially desirable answers (De Schrijver, 2012). Thus, the answers to most of the statements show that there are actually not many people that misbehave in retail stores. However, when they were asked questions 25, 26, 27, and 28, their answers differ, and they admit that there are situations when they act more or less fairly.

Table 8 – The impact of loyalty towards the supplier

CANADA		%					Mean	Chi square p-value
CROATIA		Always (1)	Very often (2)	Sometimes (3)	Rarely (4)	Never (5)		
25.	I act more fairly when I am at my preferred retail store.	11	13	18	13	44	3.66	.002
		31	10	16	13	31	3.02	
26.	When I believe that the store has fair prices, I act more fairly.	19	11	24	11	35	3.32	.102
		32	13	17	9	29	2.91	
27.	If a retailer that I visit is known for its ethical behaviours towards staff, environment or law, I act more fairly.	10	11	27	11	42	3.64	.000
		36	13	14	11	27	2.79	
28.	My personal feelings towards staff affect my behaviour (I am fairer if I like them and vice versa).	5	6	28	17	44	3.90	.019
		13	13	28	15	32	3.41	

3.6 A cross-cultural examination of consumer misbehaviour

Statements that show moderate but significant evidence to support the thesis about the cross-cultural differences between Canadian and Croatian consumers (see Table 9 on the next page).

Table 9 − A cross-cultural examination of consumer misbehaviour

	CANADA	%					Mean	Chi square p-value
	CROATIA	Always (1)	Very often (2)	Sometimes (3)	Rarely (4)	Never (5)		
3.	If a clerk at the cash register asks me about the price of an unpriced item, I lie to him/her.	1	0	3	13	83	4.77	.019
		0	1	1	5	94	4.92	
19.	I get into physical altercations with retail staff.	1	0	2	6	92	4.88	.049
		0	0	0	2	98	4.98	
22.	Fear of legal consequences prevents me from stealing.	51	8	6	4	31	2.57	.017
		53	2	3	2	41	2.77	
23.	The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.	1	1	1	11	87	4.82	.043
		1	2	2	3	93	4.84	
28.	My personal feelings towards staff affect my behaviour (I am fairer if I like them and vice versa).	5	6	28	17	44	3.90	.019
		31	13	28	15	32	3.41	

Statements number 3, 19, and 23 present cross-cultural differences in exact behaviours and show that Croatian customers have slightly higher tendency towards the answer "Never" than customers in Canada. Statement 28 shows that personal feelings towards staff have greater impact in Croatia than in Canada.

Statement 22 deserves more attention. Since punishments for thefts differ in these two countries (by Canadian law a person can be punished with maximum two years of imprisonment (YourLaws.ca, 2014), while by Croatian law a person can be punished with maximum one year of imprisonment or can even be liberated if (s)he returns stolen goods before being discovered (Law Croatia, 2014)), one could assume that fear of legal consequences would be greater in Canada. The results show that this assumption is correct.

Statements that show strong and very strong evidence to support the thesis about the cross-cultural differences between Canadian and Croatian consumers are shown in Table 10 on the next page.

Statements 9, 11, 13, 14, and 21 show consistent results. Croatian customers have stronger tendency towards the answer "Never" than Canadian customers. However, statements 25 and 27 deserve special attention. They show that personal preferences and ethical behaviour of a retailer are more important in Croatia than in Canada.

Out of 28 statements, 12 show cross-cultural differences with p-values ranging from moderate to very strong. This information draws a conclusion that cross-cultural differences in consumer ethical behaviour between Canada and Croatia do exist.

Table 10 – A cross-cultural examination of consumer misbehaviour

	CANADA	%					Mean	Chi square p-value
	CROATIA	Always (1)	Very often (2)	Sometimes (3)	Rarely (4)	Never (5)		
9.	I would return a product to the store and claim it was a gift even if it wasn't.	2	5	20	20	54	4.20	.005
		4	2	10	13	72	4.47	
11.	If it would be possible, I would use coupons that have expired.	10	7	15	11	57	4.00	.000
		6	2	7	5	81	4.53	
13.	I return a product after it goes on sale and then buy it again at a lower price.	4	8	17	15	56	4.10	.001
		3	3	8	10	77	4.56	
14.	I return a product after I try it out but don't like it.	9	7	34	20	30	3.53	.000
		6	4	8	12	70	4.35	
21.	If someone left change at the cash register, I would take it pretending it was mine.	1	2	2	17	78	4.70	.000
		2	0	2	3	93	4.85	
25.	I act more fairly when I am at my preferred retail store.	11	13	18	13	44	3.66	.002
		31	10	16	13	31	3.02	
27.	If a retailer that I visit is known for its ethical behaviours towards staff, environment or law, I act more fairly.	10	11	27	11	42	3.64	.000
		36	13	14	11	27	2.79	

3.7 Respondents' honesty and limitations of the survey

The problem with social research surveys is that respondents often skip questions to which they don't have socially desirable answers, or they answer them falsely in a socially desirable manner (De Schrijver, 2012). Responses were completely anonymous and there was no option to skip questions. Statements number 25, 26, 27, 28 had the purpose of exploring the effect of loyalty towards the supplier but served also as the control of the respondents' honesty.

Table 11 - Respondents' honesty

		MEAN CANADA	MEAN CROATIA
25.	I act more fairly when I am at my preferred retail store.	3.66	3.02
26.	When I believe that the store has fair prices, I act more fairly.	3.32	2.91
27.	If a retailer that I visit is known for its ethical behaviours towards staff, environment or law, I act more fairly.	3.64	2.79
28.	My personal feelings towards staff affect my behaviour (I am fairer if I like them and vice versa).	3.90	3.41

4 Discussion

4.1 The impact of demographic variables

The notion (presented by Fullerton and Punj, 1993) that demographic variables have no influence on consumer behaviour has been challenged by this study and has shown that either the abovementioned research was not right or that changes have happened in time. This research showed that there are not only cross-cultural differences, but also "cross-demographic" ones. Table 12 summarizes findings according to the influence that gender (gen), age, education (edu), and household income (inc) have on each of the 28 statements according to each country.

Table 12 – The impact of demographic variables

		CAN	CRO
1.	If it would be possible, I would change price tags on a product in order to pay less than the real price is.	gen, age, edu	age
2.	I drink a can of soda or eat a chocolate (or something similar) without paying for it.	edu	
3.	If a clerk at the cash register asks me about the price of an unpriced item, I lie to him/her.	edu, inc	gen, age, inc
4.	I return a damaged item even though I damaged it.	edu, inc	edu
5.	When I get too much change back, I tell the cashier.	age, inc	age
6.	If I saw someone shoplifting, I would report it.		
7.	I would lie about my child's age in order to get a discount.	edu, inc	
8.	If I broke something in a retail store (e.g. a bottle of drink), I would report it to the staff.		
9.	I would return a product to the store and claim it was a gift even if it wasn't.	edu	
10.	If it would be possible, I would use coupons that are for different products than the ones I am buying.	inc	
11.	If it would be possible, I would use coupons that have expired.	inc	age
12.	I taste products (e.g. grapes or cherries) at the store without the intention of buying any.	gen, edu	
13.	I return a product after it goes on sale and then buy it again at a lower price.	edu	age
14.	I return a product after I try it out but don't like it.		
15.	I deliberately damage products in order to get a discount.	edu	
16.	If I like a product but can't afford it, I steal it if the opportunity arises.	edu, inc	
17.	If I like a product, I steal it just for fun if the opportunity arises.	edu, inc	
18.	I get into verbal disputes with retail staff (sales personnel, security staff or managers).	gen, edu, inc	
19.	I get into physical altercations with retail staff.	gen, edu, inc	gen
20.	In order to avoid waiting in the line, I go to the cash register that is for maximum five products even if I have more than five.	edu	gen
21.	If someone left change at the cash register, I would take it pretending it was mine.	age, edu, inc	gen
22.	Fear of legal consequences prevents me from stealing.		

		CAN	CRO
23.	The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.	edu, inc	gen, age
24.	My personal financial situation affects the fairness of my behaviour in retail stores.	gen, edu, inc	
25.	I act more fairly when I am at my preferred retail store.		age
26.	When I believe that the store has fair prices, I act more fairly.	edu	
27.	If a retailer that I visit is known for its ethical behaviours towards staff, environment or law, I act more fairly.	edu	
28.	My personal feelings towards staff affect my behaviour (I am fairer if I like them and vice versa).		

Thus, the hypothesis set by Fullerton and Punj (1993) that demographic variables have no influence on consumer behaviour was rejected by this study and the one set by Olivia, Tong and Wong (2012) was confirmed. Namely, Olivia, Tong, and Wong (2012) found relationship between consumer ethics and demographic variables just like this paper did.

4.2 The impact of financial crisis and fear of legal consequences

Considering the impact of financial crisis, excuses and justifications for misbehaviour, this study offered a few potential reasons for consumer misbehaviour that refer to financials, prices of products, and thrill and excitement as causes for thefts. This study revealed that there is no strong connection between these motives and unethical behaviour. The evidence indicates that shoplifting is not caused by any of the given reasons in any of the two countries. The only statement that shows that it is one of the reasons for theft is: *The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.*

Deterrence as the technique of neutralization of unethical consumer behaviour has been presented as a futile attempt as it may produce the opposite effect and even serve as a driver for misbehaviour since it produces more thrill for the forbidden behaviour (Fullerton and Punj, 1997; Kallis and Vanier, 1985). However, this study indicated that fear impacts human behaviour in retailers and that it has greater importance in Canada where punishments are stricter.

4.3 The impact of loyalty towards the supplier

Customers that feel some kind of attachment to the shop they are buying in are less likely to get involved with unethical behaviour (Vitell and Muncy, 1992). It is important for retailers to try to establish strong Customer-Retailer Relationship (Al-Wugayan and Rao, 2004) which is the implication for managers and human resource managers but also for marketing management that should establish positive public image. This study confirmed the idea of loyal customers as a path to minimizing costs induced by consumer misbehaviour.

4.4 A cross-cultural examination of consumer misbehaviour

The two cultures explored by this paper are opposite when scrutinized according to Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Canada has high figures in individualism but low in power distance and uncertainty avoidance and has greater score in masculinity index. Opposite to Canada, Croatia has high figures in collectivism, in power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and low masculinity index (Purdue University, 2013; Swaidan, 2012). However, according to UNICEF (2011) such low masculinity index is likely to be untrue for Croatia.

Out of 28 statements, 12 of them show significant cross-cultural differences in Chi-square test. Most of them are concerned with exact behaviour:

> If a clerk at the cash register asks me about the price of an unpriced item, I lie to him/her.
>
> I get into physical altercations with retail staff.
>
> The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.
>
> I would return a product to the store and claim it was a gift even if it wasn't.
>
> If it would be possible, I would use coupons that have expired.
>
> I return a product after it goes on sale and then buy it again at a lower price.
>
> I return a product after I try it out but don't like it.
>
> If someone left change at the cash register, I would take it pretending it was mine.

In all these types of misbehaviour Croatian respondents gravitated more towards the answer "Never" than Canadian respondents. That means that Canadian respondents are more likely to commit these eight types of unethical consumer behaviour than Croatian ones.

There are three statements that are concerned with the connection between ethics and customers' personal feelings towards personnel of the retailer, their preferences about the store, and ethical behaviour of the retailer. Responses indicate that Croatian customers are more affected by personal feelings and perceptions about the retailer than Canadian customers. It demonstrates the collectivistic nature of the Croatian customers. These statements are:

> My personal feelings towards staff affect my behaviour (I am fairer if I like them and vice versa).
>
> I act more fairly when I am at my preferred retail store.
>
> If a retailer that I visit is known for its ethical behaviours towards staff, environment or law, I act more fairly.

Statement concerned with legal consequences (*Fear of legal consequences prevents me from stealing.*) shows that stricter laws in Canada have some impact. Canadian respondents show moderate but significant difference from Croatian respondents – Canadian ones are more likely to be influenced by this fear when choosing to steal or not to steal. It does not mean that those who are not affected by this fear steal more, some other factors may prevent them from stealing (like personal moral values or fear that someone they know might see them).

Some of the statements offered a small amount of possibilities in order to explore are financials, prices of products, or thrill and excitement causing thefts. Among these statements only one indicated that it is a reason for thefts (*The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.*) This paper confirmed all the hypotheses set by research questions except those that are concerned with excuses and justifications for misbehaviour.

5   Conclusion

There are a few limitations of this study. One of them is the number of the respondents. Another limitation arises from the fact that people often provide socially desirable answers (De Schrijver, 2012). The survey of this paper had limited number of questions in order to maximize the response rate. Lastly, the limitation is that only two countries were examined in this period of time.

Aggressive marketing techniques that create *unfulfilled aspirations* (Fullerton and Punj, 2002) and make people want things they can't afford in order to feel self-complete may be the driver to (un)ethics. It is maybe best described with the statement: *The higher the price of a product is, the higher the chances are that I will try to get it in an unfair way.* Further research should explore the topic. It might be worth exploring countries that have similar culture but are economically different.

It is often more productive to invest into small changes within employees (Echeverri, Salomonson, Åberg, 2012) so that they could be aware of the impact they have on business. Employees are those at the first line that should facilitate the creation of customers' loyalty (Vitell, Muncy, 1992) with the help of other departments.

Findings indicate that out of 28 statements, 22 of them in Canada and 11 in Croatia are impacted by demographic variables. Fear of legal consequences has moderate impact on shoplifting prevention. Personal financial situation has some impact in consumer misbehaviour. Customers' loyalty and their perceptions about the retailer and the staff affect their behaviour – they act more fairly when they like them and when they perceive them as fair and ethical. This impact is greater in Croatia than in Canada. Out of 28 statements, 12 of them have shown cross-cultural differences between two countries.

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22 Consumers' Lifestyle and Personal Characteristics as the Basis for Market Segmentation

Tina Vukasović[*]

Abstract: *Consumers have increasingly complex demands and it has become sensible to classify consumers into groups or segments and adapt products to individual groups. By breaking down the market into smaller parts or segments of consumers with similar characteristics, a company is better equipped to meet consumers' needs and desires. The main objective of the market research, whose main results are presented in the article, was to research consumers' lifestyle and personal values. The quantitative research method was chosen and the technique of online surveying. 131 respondents participated in the study. The research results will be used as a basis for market segmentation and for choosing the appropriate market segment of consumers in the analysed market.*

Keywords: *lifestyle, values, consumer, market segmentation, marketing strategy*

Življenjski slog potrošnikov in osebne značilnosti kot osnova za segmentacijo trga

Povzetek: *Potrošniki imajo vse zahtevnejše zahteve, zato jih je smiselno razvrstiti v skupine ali segmente in prilagoditi izdelke posameznim skupinam. Z razčlenitvijo trga na manjše dele ali segmente potrošnikov s podobnimi značilnostmi je podjetje bolje opremljeno za zadovoljevanje potreb in želja potrošnikov. Glavni cilj raziskave trga, katerih glavni rezultati so predstavljeni v članku, je raziskati življenjski slog potrošnikov in njihove osebne vrednote. Izbrana je bila kvantitativna raziskovalna metoda in tehnika spletnega raziskovanja. V raziskavi je sodelovalo 131 anketirancev. Rezultati raziskav bodo uporabljeni kot osnova za segmentacijo trga in za izbiro ustreznega tržnega segmenta potrošnikov na analiziranem trgu.*

Ključne besede: *življenjski slog, vrednote, potrošniki, tržna segmentacija, tržna strategija*

1 Introduction

Market segmentation and choosing target markets allow companies to distinguish and position their offer and to plan their marketing activities in a manner allowing them to come as close to consumers as possible. A company doing business in a large market soon realises that it cannot supply to all consumers in this market. There can be too many of them, they can differ with regard to their requirements, can be scattered across

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the market, or their purchasing demands are substantially different. The competition might be in a better position if it caters to individual consumer segments in the market.

The core of the contemporary marketing strategy of the 21st century is comprised of segmentation, choosing target markets, and positioning, which is also called target marketing (Vukasović and Jagodič, 2017). Companies are learning that mass marketing and marketing of diverse products is becoming increasingly difficult. Mass markets are getting smaller and are disintegrating into hundreds of small markets which are characterised by consumers searching for various products through various sales channels and paying attention to various communication channels. Companies are increasingly accepting target marketing. The latter presents the first step of strategic thinking in contemporary companies. Utilising a deliberate approach to target marketing, companies create the right relationships with the right consumers. In order for target marketing to be successful, the market has to be researched and the key markets determined, i.e. market segmentation followed by brand, products and services positioning.

The main objective of the market research, whose main results are presented in the article, was to research consumers' lifestyle and personal values. The quantitative research method was chosen and the technique of online surveying. The research results will be used as a basis for market segmentation and for choosing the appropriate market segment of consumers in the analysed market.

4.3 Importance of market segmentation in contemporary marketing

Market segmentation is one the first original marketing concepts originating from the United States and dating back to the 1950s (Damjan, 1995). In the United States, this was the era of fast economic and scientific development and population growth which contributed to a greater heterogeneity of demand. On this basis, market segmentation was presented as an alternative to product differentiation which had previously represented the essence of marketing strategies. Today, market segmentation has become the standard to turn to when preparing marketing strategies. It is of major importance when preparing promotional activities which are adapted to individual chosen segments.

Segmentation can be defined as breaking down the market into various groups of consumers. Here, the target group can be found and reached using the right marketing mix (Damjan, 1995). The main element of such a strategy is the focus on one or more narrower segments instead of on the whole market, as companies have limited resources and cannot meet all of the consumers' requirements. A segmented approach to the market brings a significant general advantage to the organisation, i.e. better familiarity with consumers in an individual segment, which means it is able to better adapt to their needs and requirements.

Companies need a lot of data on consumers, their wishes, requirements, and

characteristics in order to adapt their marketing activities and be successful in the market. Company management usually does not have direct contact with consumers, does not know them, and consequently does not have all the required data. These data can be obtained with market research; however, they also need to be processed prior to use. One of the methods used for this purpose is market segmentation. The results of such processing are appropriate for creating a general picture on the situation in the market and product positioning, as well as for strategic decisions on the development of new products or groups of products. Due to the growing competition in the market and consumers with increasingly complex demands, the bases for market segmentation are becoming more and more complex and segmentation more and more difficult. For this reason, researchers involved with market segmentation began using statistical methods of classification into groups (Solomon et al., 1999; Kotler, 1998).

The main advantages of market segmentation are (McDonald and Dunbar, 1995):

- Recognising differences between consumers represents the key to successful marketing, as it enables a more optimal meeting of consumers' needs and desires with the products offered by the company;
- Market segmentation leads to a concentration of company resources in markets where the company's competitive advantage is the most evident and revenue the highest;
- Market segmentation can be used as a way of achieving competitive advantage by analysing the market differently than the competition (the company chooses its own criteria);
- Market segmentation allows the company to more quickly and effectively implement marketing activities in specific market segments as a specialist and ensures the achieving of competitive advantages of its products through a better understanding of the consumers' needs and desires.

However, market segmentation also brings higher costs due to research, adaptation of production and products, and specialised marketing for individual segments.

So, why is market segmentation so useful in marketing? Market segmentation is useful in all elements of the marketing mix. It is useful in promotional activities, as advertising, which is supported with market segmentation, plays an important role in product positioning. When it comes to distribution, buyers differ with regard to where they wish to buy. Income segmentation determines the prices of the products with regard to who is buying them. Who the product is intended for also has to be kept in focus when designing the product (Mumel, 1999).

1.2 Bases for consumer market segmentation

The market of final consumers can be segmented using various variables. Some researchers try to create segments according to consumer characteristics. The most commonly considered characteristics are geographic, demographic, and psychographic characteristics. Other researchers try to create market segments on the basis of

consumers' response, the desired product characteristics, possibility of use, or brand.

The variables which describe market segments are chosen from the group of variables which represent the basis for segmentation (geographic, demographic, etc.), while consumer variables can also be used. The description and formation of segments means that each segment is described with all available and interesting variables.

Groups of variables:
- Descriptive variables: demographic, socioeconomic, psychographic, occasion of use;
- Behavioural variables: benefits sought, desired usage, purchasing patterns and loyalty, participation in the decision-making and dissemination process, brand attitude, sensitivity to marketing mix elements.

Market segmentation using descriptive variables means that consumers are first classified into segments with regard to their characteristics (age, gender, lifestyle, income, etc.) and we then check whether they differ in terms of behavioural variables. Descriptive variables are more easily accessible and individual groups have already been formed, which means that it is easier to assess the size of the segments. In segmentation according to behavioural variables, consumers are first classified with regard to behavioural characteristics and the segments are later described with descriptive variables. This second procedure is believed to be better, as market segmentation is prepared on the basis of consumers' requirements and the so-obtained segments present a better basis for the preparation of the marketing mix (Žiberna, 2002).

Despite the predominantly similar criteria for market segmentation, another author needs to be mentioned who proposes slightly different criteria for market segmentation. According to Wind, the following variables are the most frequently used basis for market segmentation (Damjan, 1989):
- For general understanding of a market: benefits sought, product purchase and usage patterns, consumers' needs, brand loyalty or a hybrid of the above variables.
- For positioning: product usage, product preference, benefits sought or a hybrid of the variables above.
- For new product introduction: response to new products (intention to buy, preference over current brand, etc.), benefits sought.
- For pricing decisions: price sensitivity, deal proneness, price sensitivity by purchase/usage patterns.
- For advertising decisions: benefits sought, media usage, psychographic or lifestyle, a hybrid of the variables above and purchase/usage patterns.
- For distribution decisions: store loyalty and patronage, benefits sought in store selection.

The above-mentioned variables are rather specific and situation-bound. They emphasise the consumers' responses or their responsiveness to marketing stimuli.

When preparing market segmentation, we include various variables which determine the characteristics of individuals who we then combine into groups with regard to common characteristics. These represent the target groups of a company's marketing strategy. There are countless combinations of including variables (from demographic to more complex ones which describe the consumer's behaviour). However, market segmentation does not suffice for a good marketing strategy. We need to develop products and services which can be positioned in the chosen segments. Market segmentation and product positioning have to be developed simultaneously.

The most important objectives of market segmentation are:
- Creating a strategy which will bring the highest possible profit with minimum costs;
- Achieving the desired market share and competitive advantage. In order to achieve these objectives, the company has to prepare simulations and cost and revenue calculations as well as sales predictions for a specific not too long period (2 to 5 years). After a certain time, the company has to review its strategy and adapt its target segments to the situation in the market (Moutinho, 1991, 60-72).

Market segmentation can be successful and useful for preparing the marketing strategy if the following criteria are met (Solomon et al., 1999):
- Consumers within the segment are similar to one another in terms of product needs, and these needs are different from consumers in other segments;
- Important differences among segments can be identified;
- The segment is large enough to be profitable;
- Consumers in the segment can be reached by an appropriate marketing mix;
- The consumers in the segment will respond in the desired way to the marketing mix designed for them.

Throughout the years of developing different theories, marketing experts have developed every possible configuration of segmentation and combination of variables for achieving the best possible and most appropriate profile of the main groups of consumers. However, changes in consumers' lifestyles and other characteristics of the population bring new marketing opportunities. In order for segmentation to be successful, establishing connections between consumers who have the same of similar lifestyle has also proven to be effective, as these data are more relevant than the basic demographic and geographic data and actually express similarity.

One of the most famous and popular market segmentation systems on the basis of values and lifestyle was developed at an American research institute (VALS – Values and Lifestyles). The system is based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the theory by the sociologist David Riesman who distinguishes between people, who value personal expression and individual taste, and people, who tend to be swayed by the behaviour and reactions of others (Solomon et al., 1999).

Market segmentation discovers opportunities which represent the market segment for individual companies. The company needs to assess various segments and decide on how many and which segments to focus.

5 Methods and sample

The main objective of the market research is to research consumers' lifestyle and personal values. The quantitative research method was chosen and the technique of online surveying. Surveying was performed using an online survey. The link to the survey was sent to the respondents' email addresses.

131 respondents participated in the study. 99 respondents provided their gender. Of those there were 27 male respondents (27% of respondents) and 72 female respondents (73% of respondents).

So as to facilitate the assessment of respondents according to age, they were classified into four age groups. Table 1 presents the four age groups of respondents. The highest share of the 99 respondents belong to the 35 to 44 age group, i.e. 39 respondents or 39% of all respondents (of those 14 (36%) men and 25 (64%) women). This is followed by the group of respondents belonging to the over 45 age group (27 or 27%).

Table 1: Respondents' age – groups

Age groups	Sample	
	f	%
up to 24 years old	11	11
25 to 34 years old	22	22
35 to 44 years old	39	39
over 45 years old	27	100
Total	99	100.0

6 Results and discussion

Analysing the respondents' status, Table 2 shows that the majority of the respondents (68 or 69%) provided employed or self-employed as their current status. This is followed by the unemployed (16 respondents or 16%), and respondents (9 respondents or 8%) who provided another option as their status, i.e. part-time employed, on maternity leave, or employed and studying simultaneously. None of the respondents are secondary school students or retired.

Table 2: Respondents' status

	Sample	
	f	%
Secondary school student	0	0
Student	6	6
Employed or self-employed	68	69
Unemployed	16	16
Retired	0	0
Other	9	9
Total	99	100.0

68 respondents provided their answers on the field of employment. The majority, i.e. 37 respondents or 54%, work in the economic sector, while 31 respondents or 46% work in the public sector (Table 3).

Table 3: Field of employment

	Sample	
	f	%
Economic sector	37	54
Public sector	31	46
Total	68	100.0

The research focused on consumer's lifestyle and personal characteristics, to the attitude towards different personal values or things which consumers see as the guiding principles which give meaning to their lives. The respondents answered our question using a five-point Likert scale, with 1 meaning that a statement does not apply to the respondent at all and 5 that a statement fully applies to the respondent. The respondents could freely choose a number from 1 to 5.

Table 4 shows the respondents' attitude towards different personal values or things which the respondents see as the guiding principles which give meaning to their lives. 102 respondents answered the question. The most important values determined by the respondents were being fair and honest. This statement was chosen by 69 (68%) respondents. The respondents also find the safety of their loved ones very important. This statement was chosen by 68 (67%) respondents. According to the respondents, the least important characteristic is the traditional division of roles into male and female roles.

Table 2: The respondents' attitude towards different personal values or things which the respondents see as the guiding principles which give meaning to their lives

Values	Sample		Average
	f	%	
being fair, honest	69	68	4.6
safety of loved ones	68	67	4.6
doing things I love	59	58	4.5
helping others	50	49	4.5
achieving a higher standard	46	45	4.4
equal opportunities for all	35	34	4.1
exciting experience	29	28	3.9
being different from other people	25	25	3.8
having fun	22	22	3.7
maintaining tradition	20	20	3.7
material goods, having a lot of money	13	13	3.5
living according to principles dictated by religion	12	12	3.5
traditional division of roles into male and female roles	7	7	2.5

The next set of statements refers to the respondents' personal characteristics. The respondents had to indicate their level of agreement with an individual statement. A five-point Likert scale was used, with 1 meaning that they completely disagree with a statement and 5 that they fully agree with it.

Table 5 presents the respondents' personal characteristics. This question focused on the respondents' personal characteristics. 101 respondents answered the question. 55 respondents (54%) find cooperation, help, and encouraging others to be very important.

53 (52%) respondents are organised, responsible, and persistent and 48 (48%) value different opinions, are willing to accept additional information and knowledge, and upgrade existing knowledge through research.

Table 3: Respondents' personal characteristics

Personal characteristics	Sample		Average
	f	%	
I am a cooperative person, I like to help, and encourage others.	55	54	4.5
I am responsible, organised, persistent.	53	52	4.4
I am inquisitive, of a vivid imagination, I appreciate different opinions and ideas.	48	48	4.4
I am thorough in my work.	47	47	4.4
I appreciate artistic and aesthetic experiences.	42	42	4.2
I am effective in what I do.	33	33	4.2
I am original and often come up with new ideas.	30	30	4
I am considerate and kind to almost everyone.	24	24	4
I am talkative.	23	23	3.7
I remain calm in stressful situations.	16	16	3.6
I forgive people easily.	15	15	3.4
I am often worried.	13	13	3.2
I quickly get nervous.	6	6	2.7

The study further focused on the values with which the respondents associate their personality. The respondents could choose a maximum of five values. Table 6 shows the values which the respondents associate with themselves.

Table 4: Values with which the respondents associate their personality

	Gender	MALE	FEMALE	Total
	reliability	13	46	59
		22%	78%	100%
	integrity	14	41	55
		26%	74%	100%
	respect	10	40	50
With which values do you associate your personality?		20%	80%	100%
	flexibility	11	34	45
		24%	76%	100%
	ambitiousness	10	32	42
		24%	76%	100%
	originality	1	3	4
		25%	75%	100%
	Total	59	196	255
		23%	77%	100%

The six most frequently chosen values are shown. We were interested in the relation between the chosen value and the respondents' gender. Reliability is the most emphasised value. 13 (22%) men and 46 (78%) women chose this value. The second most frequently chosen value is integrity, which was chosen by 14 (26%) men and 41 (71%) women. 10 (20%) men and 40 (80%) women chose the value of respect. In light of the data obtained with our study, we can say that the percentage of positive personal

values is higher among women than it is among men. The lowest number of respondents, i.e. 1 (25%) men and 4 (75%) women, chose the value of originality as the least important.

7 Conclusion

Successful market segmentation allows us to develop a successful marketing strategy. When preparing market segmentation, we include various variables which determine the characteristics of individuals who we then combine into groups with regard to common characteristics. These represent the target groups of a company's marketing strategy. There are countless combinations of including variables (from demographic to more complex ones which describe the consumer's behaviour). However, market segmentation does not suffice for a good marketing strategy. We need to develop products and services which are positioned in the chosen segments. Market segmentation and product positioning have to be developed simultaneously. The most important objectives of market segmentation are creating a strategy which will bring the highest possible profit with minimum costs and allow us to achieve the desired market share and competitive advantage. After a certain time, the company has to review its strategy and adapt its target segments to the new situation in the market. In addition to the correct choice and positioning in the market, the right communication with the chosen target groups is also important, i.e. by adapting individual elements of the communication mix with regard to their demographic and behavioural characteristics.

The study focused on the lifestyle and personal values of consumers. The research results will be used as a basis for market segmentation and for choosing the appropriate market segment of consumers in the analysed market.

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Recenziji monografije
Reviews of the monograph

prof. dr. Peter Stanovnik

1 Uvod

Hitre politične, gospodarske, tehnološke in geostrateške spremembe v svetu in EU predstavljajo številne izzive za slovenske raziskovalce na področju družboslovja. Pričujoča monografija DOBA Fakultete ponuja, na osnovi opravljenih temeljnih in uporabnih raziskovanj v preteklem letu, vrsto zanimivih spoznanj in ugotovitev ter daje odgovore na aktualna ekonomska in socialna vprašanja.

2 Vsebina monografije

Monografija je multidisciplinarna, saj objavljeni članki vključujejo več družboslovnih področij, od mikroekonomije, upravnih in organizacijskih ved, urbanizma in prostorskega načrtovanja, psihologije do informacijskih znanosti. Monografija obsega okoli 300 strani, razdeljenih v tri vsebinsko zaokrožene sklope, v katerih je predstavljeno 22 člankov.

Prvi sklop posega na problematiko mednarodnega poslovanja, s poudarkom na proučevanju prenosa socialnega kapitala v družinskih podjetjih, sistemih vodenja kakovosti ter menedžmentu v turizmu in pametnih mestih. Štirje članki v tem sklopu se vključujejo v prioritetna področja slovenske strategije pametne specializacije za obdobje 2016-2020. Koncept pametnega mesta je najpogostejši način upravljanja mestnega okolja na osnovi informacijskih tehnologij, uporabe velikih podatkov s podatkovnim rudarjenjem ter vključevanjem občanov v sisteme odločanja. Avtorji se zavzemajo za inovativne pristope pri upravljanju javnih prostorov s teoretičnim modelom ter z navajanjem praktične uporabe s študijo primera. Eno izmed ključnih gospodarskih dejavnosti, opredeljenih v srednjeročni strategiji, je tudi področje turizma. Avtorji so se kot prvi v Sloveniji lotili kontroverzne teme »temačnega turizma«, in skušali prikazati trenutni položaj v Sloveniji. Na osnovi empirične raziskave so ugotovili, da imajo ponudniki turističnih storitev določen odpor do uporabe tega termina in da bodo potrebne nadaljnje raziskave tega fenomena.

Drugi tematski sklop je namenjen izobraževalnim procesom ter managementu v sociali. Glede na to, da je fakulteta Doba vodilna v Sloveniji na področju izobraževanja na daljavo (v letu 2018 je uspela pridobiti evropsko akreditacijo za online študij EFMD OECCS) , je razumljivo, da sodelavci DOBE raziskujejo tudi področje svojega delovanja. Članki v tem sklopu so osredotočeni na e-učenje na področju visokega šolstva, na konkurenčne prednosti posameznih šolskih institucij, na izboljšanje timskega dela pri študentih, na karakterne in inovacijske značilnosti mlade generacije, imenovane generacija Y.

Tretji sklop vsebinsko zajema široko interdisciplinarno tematiko proučevanja družbenih medijev, odnosov z javnostmi ter podjetniške probleme na področju marketinga. V današnji potrošniški družbi je pomembno tudi proučevanje etičnega obnašanja potrošnikov ter njihovih življenjskih slogov. Te probleme obravnavajo članki »Porast raziskovalnega sodelovanja in inovacij s pomočjo družbenih medijev«, »Družbena vloga

sramu in njegovo generiranje s pomočjo množičnih medijev ter družbenih omrežij« ter »Življenjski slog potrošnikov in osebne značilnosti kot osnova za segmentacijo trga«.

3 Sklep

Delo predstavlja uporaben znanstveni doprinos na področju družboslovja. Pomembna značilnost monografije je v sestavi avtorjev člankov. Pri tem gre pretežno za redno in pogodbeno zaposlene visokošolske učitelje DOBA Fakultete in avtorje sodelujočih univerz pa tudi za online mentorje, diplomante magistrskega študija in strokovne sodelavce. Monografija navaja obširno sodobno domačo in tujo literaturo. Avtorji so uspeli aplicirati napredne statistične metode in uporabiti podatke iz domačih in tujih informacijskih baz, ki so v znanosti pogosto premalo izkoriščene.

Večina člankov je napisana v angleščini, saj na ta način monografija presega jezikovno majhen slovenski trg in skuša slediti naravnanosti in prepoznavnosti fakultete v širšem mednarodnem prostoru (območje Jugovzhodne Evrope ter Evropske unije).

Delo predstavlja uporaben znanstveni doprinos na področju mednarodnega poslovanja, podjetniškega menedžmenta ter menedžmenta v sociali in izobraževanju. Pomembna dodana vrednost monografije so nekateri predlogi ukrepov na področju podjetniškega menedžmenta, množičnih medijev, družbenih omrežij in upravljanja mestnih javnih površin.

Ljubljana, 20. novembra 2018

prof. dr. Peter Stanovnik

1 Introduction

The rapid political, economic, technological and geo-strategic changes in the world and the EU pose numerous challenges for Slovene researchers in the field of social sciences. The present monograph of the DOBA Business School offers, based on basic and applied research conducted in the past year, several interesting findings and knowledge, and provides answers to current economic and social issues.

2 Contents of the monograph

The monograph is multidisciplinary, since published articles include several fields of social sciences, from microeconomics, business and organizational sciences, urban planning and spatial planning, psychology to information sciences of marketing and public relations. The monograph covers about 300 pages, divided into three substantially rounded sections, in which 22 articles are presented.

The first section deals with the issues of international business, with an emphasis on the study of the transfer of social capital in family enterprises, quality management systems and management in tourism and smart cities. Four articles in this section are included in the priority areas of the Slovenian strategy for smart specialization for the period 2016-2020. The concept of a smart city is the most common way of managing the urban environment based on information technologies, the use of large data with data mining and the involvement of citizens in decision-making systems. The authors advocate innovative approaches to managing public spaces with a theoretical model and citing practical use with case studies. One of the key economic activities identified in the medium-term strategy is the tourism sector. The authors were the first in Slovenia to address the controversial topics of "dark tourism" and tried to present the current situation in Slovenia. Based on empirical research, it has been established that tourism service providers have a certain resistance to the use of this term and that further research on this phenomenon will be required.

The second thematic section is devoted to educational processes and management in social services. Given that DOBA Business School is the leader in Slovenia in the field of distance education (in 2018, she succeeded in obtaining European accreditation for online studies of the EFMD OECCS), it is understandable that DOBA's co-workers also explore the field of their work. The articles in this section focus on e-learning in the field of higher education, the competitive advantages of individual school institutions, the improvement of team work among students, the character and innovation characteristics of the young generation, called the generation Y.

The third section covers the broad interdisciplinary topic of study of social media, public relations and entrepreneurial problems in the field of marketing. In today's consumer society, it is also important to study the ethical behaviour of consumers and their lifestyles. These issues are addressed in the articles "Research collaboration and

innovation increase by social media", "Social role of shame and its generation through mass media and social networks" and "Consumers' life style and personal characteristics as the basis for market segmentation".

3 Conclusion

This monograph represents a useful scientific contribution in the field of social sciences. An important feature of the monograph is the composition of the authors of the articles. This is mainly for regular and contractually employed higher education teachers of DOBA Business School and authors of participating universities, as well as for online mentors (teaching assistants), graduates of master's studies and professional associates. The monograph lists extensive modern domestic and foreign literature. The authors managed to apply advanced statistical methods and use data from domestic and foreign information databases, which are often underused in science.

Most of the articles are written in English, because in this way the monograph goes beyond the linguistic small Slovenian market and seeks to follow the orientation and visibility of the School in the wider international area (the region of South-Eastern Europe and the European Union).

The monograph represents a useful scientific contribution in the field of international business, entrepreneurial management and management in social services and education. An important added value of the monograph is some suggestions of measures in the field of entrepreneurship management, mass media, social networks and management of urban public spaces.

Ljubljana, November 20, 2018

Zaslužni profesor mag. Peter Gabrijelčič

1   Uvod

Obsežna, že četrta znanstvena monografija iz zbirke DOBA Fakultete »Spoznanja iz uporabnih poslovnih in družbenih študij«, predstavlja pomemben prispevek zasebne poslovne šole DOBA Fakulteta k splošnemu razvoju in prenosu novega znanja tako v akademsko kot tudi poslovno sfero na področju poslovnih in družbenih ved. Monografija obsega 22 tehtnih avtorskih znanstvenih člankov, ki so jih pripravili pretežno profesorji matične fakultete kot tudi profesorji sorodnih fakultet, ki pogosto sodelujejo v učnem programu.

Z zadovoljstvom ugotavljam, da DOBA Fakulteta vključuje v svoj visokošolski program v skladu s sodobnimi trendi tudi elemente raziskovalnega dela. In to ne le iz čisto akademskih tem, temveč tudi takih, ki izhajajo iz potreb in znanja prakse. To je pomembno predvsem za tisti del populacije, ki prihaja iz prakse in potrebuje sicer pretežno aplikativna znanja, ki pa jih želi nadgraditi z dodatnim študijem tudi na raziskovalnem področju. To je pomembna in hvale vredna usmeritev, ki mobilizira in motivira obsežen človeški kapital v gospodarstvu in aktivira prenos tudi tihega znanja, ki je prisotno tako v praktičnih okoljih kot na univerzi. Preden se dotaknem ocene posameznih prispevkov v monografiji, bi rad argumentiral pravilnost takšne fakultetne odločitve z nekaj načelnimi stališči.

V sodobnih družbah je postalo znanje pomembna tržna surovina ter pogoj za celovit družben razvoj. Prav zato je pomembno razvijati tako temeljna kot tudi aplikativna znanja, s katerimi je postalo razvijanje in razprševanje znanja bolj dinamično, zato je dan velik poudarek na procese prenosa znanja in na razvijanju sposobnostih njegove uporabe. Prepoznavanje znanja kot ključnega elementa konkurenčne prednosti na vseh ravneh družbe se že nekaj časa odraža tako v poskusih prenove izobraževalnih sistemov, ki naj bi sledili družbenim spremembam, kot v priznavanju kompleksnosti učenja v različnih okoliščinah in oblikah ter s tem povezanih konceptih, kot sta vseživljenjsko izobraževanje, uvajanje tehnologij online študija in koncepta kompetenc. Za ustvarjanje, povezovanje in uporabo novega znanja je pomembno sodelovanje med vsemi deležniki; od akademske sfere do gospodarstva in družbenega sektorja, in to na vseh ravneh in v najrazličnejših povezavah. V pogojih tržne konkurence se veča pomen uporabnega oziroma komercialnega znanja, ki je organizacijam potrebno za uspešno poslovanje ter za oblikovanje konkurenčnih proizvodov, ki temeljijo na novih idejah. Z vključitvijo akademske sfere v aplikativne projekte so tudi fakultete razvile podjetniško kulturo, v kateri je postalo znanje, ki ga je mogoče komercializirati, tržno blago. Ob tem se sproža vrsta etičnih vprašanj, ki se tičejo vprašanj zaščite znanja zaradi poslovne skrivnosti deležnikov iz gospodarstva proti popolni akademski odprtosti do znanja, kar je temeljno načelo akademske etike. Odpira se etično vprašanje o primernosti raziskovanja, povezanega z temami, ki so usmerjene v družbeno neodgovorne ali celo škodljive projekte, ki zasledujejo le logiko večanja profita. Ob tržno usmerjenih zasebnih šolah

rastejo tudi v javnem visokem šolstvu zahteve po ekonomsko merljivih rezultatih znanja pri aplikativnih programih, saj so vlade prepričane, da bodo nova aplikativna znanja prispevala h gospodarskemu razvoju. DOBA Fakulteta, vsaj po do sedaj izkazanih rezultatih, uspešno sledi tem ciljem. In znanstvene monografije, kot je pričujoča, so eden od instrumentov, s katerimi želi to doseči.

Pričujoča monografija se dotika treh tematskih področij, ki so razporejena v tri poglavja, in sicer:

1. Mednarodno poslovanje, menedžment v turizmu, menedžment pametnih mest
2. Menedžment v sociali in online izobraževanje
3. Odnosi z javnostmi in družbenimi mediji, marketing in prodaja.

Raziskovalne teme so predstavljene v 22 člankih na 286 straneh. Prispevki so različni tako po vsebini kot namenu, od bolj splošnih znanstveno preglednih člankov do usmerjenih v ožje strokovno področje. Pri pisanju člankov oziroma pri raziskavah je bil brez izjeme uporabljen primeren znanstveno raziskovalni aparat, ki zagotavlja verodostojnost znanstvenih spoznanj in trditev. Uporabljene so tako kvalitativne kot tudi kvantitativne metode, rezultati pa bodo koristna spodbuda za bodoče poglobljene raziskave ali bodo koristna informacija za neposredne uporabnike znanja. Opazna je velika skrb za poenoteno in jasno členitev tekstov kot tudi za dosledno uporabo verodostojne terminologije. To omogoča, da so objavljene tematike razumljene tudi nepoučenemu bralcu.

2 Mednarodno poslovanje, menedžment v turizmu, menedžment pametnih mest

Prvo poglavje monografije obsega 8 člankov, ki obravnavajo področje menedžmenta.

V članku »Prenos socialnega kapitala v povezavi z inovativnostjo naslednjih generacij v družinskih podjetjih« je na podlagi izčrpne analize dokazano, da je prenosljivost socialnega kapitala med generacijami v malih družinskih podjetjih strateškega pomena za kontinuiteto in njihov trajnostni razvoj. S tem se odpirajo nove naloge, kako to spoznanje uresničiti tako na mikro kot na makro merilu slovenske razvojne strategije. V članku »Delovanje sistemov vodenja kakovosti in modelov odličnosti« so predstavljeni rezultati raziskav o tem, zakaj orodja za zagotavljanje kakovosti in odličnosti v praksi delujejo in zakaj ne. Izpostavljen je predvsem pomen ugotavljanja slabosti v delovanju organizacij, kar je pogoj za njihovo odpravo in pot do učinkovitega in uspešnega poslovanja. Članek »Testiranje modela upravljanja s časom v Črni gori« opozarja na povezavo med organizirano obliko porabe časa na delu in v prostem času. Ugotavlja njuno soodvisnost in postavi koristno predpostavko, da vodi dobra organizacija časa v na delu tudi k učinkovitejšem preživljanju prostega časa.

V članku »Trendi in napovedi igralništva v Sloveniji« je podana analiza pogojev, ki omogočajo napovedovanje prihodnje igralniške potrošnje z določeno stopnjo

natančnosti, da bi na ta način omogočili nadaljnji razvoj igralništva v Sloveniji. Avtorja se ukvarjata izključno s konkretno naravo predmeta, ne odpirata pa vprašanj v zvezi z etičnostjo te dejavnosti v skladu s splošnim kulturnim kontekstom slovenskega razvoja. »Poskus študije razvoja temačnega turizma v Sloveniji« je raziskava, ki prestavlja koristno izhodišče za nadaljnjo turistično ponudbo Slovenije; še posebej glede na dejstvo, da je turistična industrija ena najhitreje rastočih panog na svetu in morda najpomembnejši kapital Evrope v bodočnosti.

Prispevek »Inovativni pristopi k upravljanju javnih prostorov: potencial sodelovanja državljanov v kontekstu pametnih mest« se osredotoča na inovativne pristope k upravljanju javnih prostorov v kontekstu pametnih mest, ki lahko omogočijo ljudem, da postanejo enakovredni partnerji pri razvoju pametnih in trajnostnih življenjskih prostorov. »Alternativne metode za zbiranje podatkov in analizo uporabe javnega prostora na podlagi podatkovnega rudarjenja v družbenih omrežjih in urbanih informacijskih storitvah« je članek, v katerem se avtorja zavzemata za aktivno vlogo mest pri zbiranju in analizi relevantnih podatkov, ki bi zagotavljali učinkovitejšo uporabo javnih prostorov v mestih. V prispevku »Načrtovanje participativne parkirne politike na podlagi dokazov: primer Idrija« se avtorja zavzemata za oblikovanje parkirne politike na participativen način skupaj z lokalno skupnostjo.

3   Menedžment v sociali in online izobraževanje

Drugo poglavje monografije pod naslovom »Menedžment v sociali in online izobraževanje« obsega 7 člankov.

Članek »E-izobraževanje v visokem šolstvu in notranja motivacija študentov za e-izobraževanje« opozarja na povezavo med notranjo motivacijo študentov za e-izobraževanje z razvojem kompetenc in formalno uspešnostjo študentov v procesu e-učenja. Raziskava bo koristen pripomoček pri kreiranju novih učnih programov in inovativnih pedagoških pristopov učiteljev. Raziskava »Konkurenčne prednosti visokih šol in fakultet: kaj je pomembno, ko študente izbirajo šolo« kaže na to, da študentje raje izbirajo šole, na katerih učijo učitelji s praktičnimi izkušnjami. To je koristno spoznanje za vodenje kadrovske politike visokošolskih zavodov. V članku »Učne analitike v formativnem ocenjevanju: primer uporabe razširjenih ocenjevalnih shem za spremljanje zanesljivosti preverjanja znanja z več ocenjevalci« je v okviru raziskave na DOBA Fakulteti dokazano, da so preverjanja znanja z več ocenjevalci in uporabo učnih analitik v online študiju zanesljivo orodje za ugotavljanje znanja študentov. To je koristen podatek, saj uvaja možnost tovrstnega ocenjevanja tudi na ostalih visokošolskih zavodih v Sloveniji. Raziskava »Razvijanje timskega dela v online študiju: pilotna študija« je bila izvedena v okviru DOBA Fakultete, ki je vodilna na področju online študija v Sloveniji. Predstavljeni so pozitivni učinki uspešnega razvijanja talentov na učinkovitost in zadovoljstvo s timskim delom v virtualnem učnem okolju in podani predlogi za izboljšanje sistema online študija. V članku »Virtualno timsko delo

študentov: študija primera DOBA Fakultete« je predstavljena analiza in pozitiven primer virtualnega timskega dela DOBA Fakultete, na podlagi pet letnega zbiranja podatkov.

»Dojemanje pomena vodstvenih sposobnosti v predmetih projektnega menedžmenta« je raziskava, ki je bila izvedena na DOBA Fakulteti v okviru online študija in je pokazala, da je lažje obvladati trda menedžerska znanja kot osvojiti vodstvene sposobnosti, zato je potrebno temu prilagoditi učni pristop in materiale. Praktičen pomen članka »Generacija Y: kreativna, inovativna, dinamična« je v identifikacije generacije Y kot pravega medija za širitev inovacij. Kreativni predstavniki te generacije so lahko ob ustrezni vzpodbudi nosilci novih tržnih idej ali uspešni sodelavci v teamu.

4 Odnosi z javnostmi in družbenimi mediji, marketing in prodaja

Tretje poglavje pričujoče monografije pod naslovom »Odnosi z javnostmi in družbeni mediji, markerting in prodaja« vsebuje 7 člankov.

Prvi članek ima naslov »Porast raziskovalnega sodelovanja in inovacij s pomočjo družbenih medijev«. Prikazuje rezultate raziskave o uporabi družbenih medijev kot pomembnega komunikacijskega orodja v evropskem projektnem vodenju, kjer je dokumentirana aktualna praksa 137 anketirancev iz vse Evrope. »Družbena vloga sramu in njegovo generiranje s pomočjo družbenih medijev in družbenih omrežij« je naslov članka, ki govori o sramu kot sredstvu družbene kontrole, ki omogoča ob pojavu sodobnih družbenih omrežij možnosti vplivanja, manipuliranja in, posledično, sramotenja velikih dimenzij in dinamike. Raziskava »Lažne novice v marketingu: primer špinače in tobačne industrije« ugotavlja, da so lažne novice predmet bodisi napačnega razumevanja dejstev o artiklu s strani proizvajalca ali pa zavestna laž in zavajanje potrošnika z namenom ustvariti čim večje profite za vsako ceno.

V članku »Nevromarketing kot poslovna strategija« je povzeta ugotovitev, da znanstvena metodologija, v kateri vodi uporaba sodobnih medicinskih elektronskih orodij do natančnejše analize in interpretacije delovanja možganskega dela potrošnika zagotavlja bolj realen pogled na to, kar potrošnike vzpodbuja pri nakupu. Članek »Konsistentnost kontrolnih sistemov prodajnih kadrov: pogled menedžmenta« govori o tem, da morajo vrhunski menedžerji oblikovati kontrolni sistem prodajnih kadrov na osnovi konsistentnih politik upravljanja. Slovenska izkušnja kaže, da je svetovalno vedenje prodajalcev najmanj konsistentno podprto s coachingom, ki ga neposredno nadrejeni menedžerji nudijo prodajnim kadrom. »Medkulturna perspektiva etike in slabo vedenje potrošnikov« je članek, ki je rezultat raziskave, katere namen je bil ugotoviti nekatere izmed najpogostejših vedenj potrošnikov na nižji ravni in jih povezati z demografskimi spremenljivkami in medkulturnimi razlikami med državama. Osebni finančni položaj, zvestoba potrošnikov in njihova čustva do družbe in osebja vplivajo na etiko. »Življenjski slog potrošnikov in osebne značilnosti kot osnova za segmentacijo trga« opisuje raziskavo, v kateri je sodelovalo 131 anketirancev in kjer je bilo ugotovljeno, da so podjetja, ki razčlenijo trg na manjše dele ali segmente potrošnikov s podobnimi

značilnostmi bolje opremljeno za zadovoljevanje potreb in želja potrošnikov. Rezultati raziskav bodo uporabljeni kot osnova za segmentacijo trga in za izbiro ustreznega tržnega segmenta potrošnikov na analiziranem trgu.

5 Sklep

Pričujoča monografija DOBA Fakultete je predstavljena v angleškem jeziku ter na ta način neposredno nagovarja širšo, mednarodno ciljno publiko. Pohvalno je, da se uredništvo zaveda, da je potrebno sočasno skrbeti tudi za razvoj strokovne terminologije v domačem jeziku. V ta namen pripravlja DOBA Fakulteta številne strokovne in znanstvene izdaje v slovenščini. Pričujoča publikacija je rezultat družbeno odgovorne poslovne filozofije te fakultete in se odraža v odnosu profesorjev in online mentorjev do študentov ter v njihovem odnosu do družbe in okolja. Je rezultat akademskega in strokovnega ozaveščanja in prizadevanja za družbeno odgovornost, kar učiteljski kolektiv fakultete spodbuja z vsakodnevnim uresničevanjem vrednot na pedagoškem, strokovnem in raziskovalnem področju ter s podporo obsežni palet dejavnosti in z aktivno vlogo pri različnih družbenih akcijah. V tej luči je še kako pomembno, da tudi monografske predstavitve raziskav in stališč učiteljev in šole kot celote zasledujejo omenjena etična načela in ne podležejo le tržni logiki večjega profita.

V Ljubljani 23.11.2018

Professor Emeritus Peter Gabrijelčič

1   Introduction

The extensive, already fourth scientific monograph from the DOBA Business School collection "Lessons from Applied Business and Social Studies" represents an important contribution of the private business school DOBA to the general development and transfer of new knowledge both to the academic and business spheres in the field of business and social sciences. The monograph comprises 22 compelling authorial scientific articles prepared mainly by professors from this faculty and professors of related faculties, who often participate in the curriculum.

I am pleased to note that DOBA Business School incorporates elements of research work into its higher education program in line with modern trends. And this not only from purely academic topics, but also from those that arise from the needs and knowledge of the practice. This is particularly important for that part of the population that comes from practice and needs otherwise predominantly applied knowledge, which they want to upgrade with additional studies in the research field. This is an important and praiseworthy guideline that mobilizes and motivates extensive human capital in the business and activates the transfer of the silent knowledge that is present both in practical environments and at the university. Before I touch the assessment of individual contributions in the monograph, I would like to argue the correctness of such faculty decisions by some principled positions.

In modern societies, knowledge has become an important market resource and a condition for a comprehensive social development. This is why it is important to develop both basic as well as applied knowledge, with which the development and diffusion of knowledge became more dynamic, and a great deal of emphasis is placed on the processes of knowledge transfer and the development of the ability to use it. Recognition of knowledge as a key element of a competitive advantage at all levels of society has been reflected for some time in both attempts to reform educational systems that are intended to follow social change as well as to recognize the complexity of learning in different circumstances and forms and related concepts such as lifelong learning, the introduction of online study technologies and the concept of competences. Collaboration between all stakeholders is important for the creation, integration and use of new knowledge; from the academic sphere to the business and the social sector, at all levels and in a wide variety of connections. Under the conditions of market competition, the importance of useful or commercial knowledge, which is necessary for successful business operations and the creation of competitive products based on new ideas, is increasing. By incorporating the academic sphere into applicative projects, the faculties have also developed an entrepreneurial culture in which it has become a commercially available, marketable commodity. At the same time, a series of ethical questions arises concerning issues of knowledge protection due to the business secrets of the stakeholders from the economy against complete academic openness to

knowledge, which is a fundamental principle of academic ethics. An ethical question is raised about the appropriateness of research related to topics that are oriented towards socially irresponsible or even damaging projects that pursue only the logic of increasing profits. Market-oriented private schools are also growing in public higher education requirements for economically measurable learning outcomes in applicative programs, as governments are convinced that new applicative skills will contribute to economic development. DOBA Business School at least according to the results so far, successfully follows these goals. And scientific monographs, as is the case here, are one of the instruments to achieve this.

The present monograph touches on three thematic areas, which are arranged in three chapters, namely:

1. International business and management, tourism and smart cities
2. Management in social sevices and online education
3. Public relations and social media, marketing and sales.

Research topics are presented in 22 articles on 286 pages. The contributions vary in content and purpose, from more general scientifically transparent articles to those focused in the narrower field of expertise. In writing articles or in research, an appropriate scientific research apparatus was used without exception, ensuring the credibility of scientific knowledge and assertions. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are used, and the results will be a useful incentive for future in-depth research or will be useful information for direct users of knowledge. There is a great concern about the uniform and clear breakdown of texts as well as the consistent use of authentic terminology. This allows the published topics to be understood also by an untrained reader.

2 International business and management, tourism and smart cities

The first chapter of the monograph comprises 8 articles dealing with the field of management.

In the article "Transfer of social capital in correlation with innovativeness of the next family generation in family businesses", based on a comprehensive analysis, it has been demonstrated that the transferability of social capital between generations in small family businesses is of strategic importance for continuity and their sustainable development. This is why new tasks are opened on how to realize this realization both on the micro and macro scale of the Slovenian development strategy. In the article "Quality management systems and models of excellence", the results of research on why tools for quality assurance and excellence work in practice and why not. The emphasis is on the importance of identifying the weaknesses in the functioning of organizations, which is a prerequisite for their elimination and the way to efficient and successful operations. Article "Testing the model of time management in Montenegro" draws

attention to the connection between the organized form of time spent at work and in leisure time. It recognizes their interdependence and makes it a useful assumption to lead a good organization of time in the work to more effective leisure time.

The article "Trend and forecasting of Slovenian gambling" provides an analysis of the conditions that enable the forecasting of future gaming consumption with a certain degree of precision in order to enable the further development of gambling in Slovenia. The authors deal exclusively with the concrete nature of the subject, but do not raise questions regarding the ethics of this activity in accordance with the general cultural context of Slovenian development. "An approach to dark tourism development in Slovenia" is a survey that represents a useful starting point for further tourism in Slovenia; especially given the fact that the tourism industry is one of the fastest growing industries in the world and perhaps the most important capital of Europe in the future.

The contribution "Innovative approach to management of public spaces: the potential of citizen participation in the context of smart cities" focuses on innovative approaches to managing public spaces in the context of smart cities that can enable people to become equal partners in the development of smart and sustainable living spaces. "Alternative methods for data collection and usage analysis of public space based on data mining in social networks and urban information services" is an article in which authors are committed to the active role of cities in collecting and analyzing relevant data that would ensure a more efficient use of public spaces in places. In the article "The design of evidence based participative parking policy: a case of Idrija", the authors are committed to creating a parking policy in a participatory way together with the local community.

3   Management in social services and online education

The second chapter of the monograph comprises 7 articles.

The article "E-learning in higher education and intrinsic motivation for e-learning" draws attention to the link between the internal motivation of students for e-learning through the development of competences and the formal performance of students in the e-learning process. The research will be a useful tool in creating new curricula and innovative pedagogical approaches of teachers. The research "Competitive advantages for schools: what is important when students decide what and where to study" suggests that students prefer to choose schools where teachers learn with practical experience. This is a useful lesson for managing the personnel policy of higher education institutions. In the article "Learning analytics in formative assessment: case of usage rubrics for monitoring inter-rater reliability", a research at DOBA Business School has shown that knowledge testing with several assessors and the use of learning analysts in online studies is a reliable tool for identifying knowledge of students. This is useful information, since it introduces the possibility of this type of assessment in other higher education institutions in Slovenia.

The research "Advancement of teamwork in online learning: a pilot study" was carried out within the framework of the DOBA Business School which is the leader in online studies in Slovenia. Positive effects of successful talent development on efficiency and satisfaction with team work in a virtual learning environment are presented and suggestions for improving the system of online studies are presented. In the article "Students' virtual teamwork: a case study of DOBA Business School", the analysis and a positive example of the virtual team work of the DOBA Business School are presented, based on five annual data collections.

"Perceiving leadership in project management courses" is a survey conducted at DOBA Business School in the context of online studies and showed that it is easier to master hard managerial skills than to gain managerial skills, and therefore it is necessary to adapt the learning approach and materials. The practical meaning of the article "Generation Y: creative, innovative, dynamic" is to identify the generation Y as the right medium for expanding innovation. Creative representatives of this generation can, with appropriate encouragement, be the bearers of new market ideas or successful associates in the team.

4 Public relations and social media, marketing and sales

The third chapter of this monograph contains 7 articles.

The first article, "Research collaboration and innovation increase by social media", shows the results of the survey on the use of social media as an important communication tool in European project management, where the current practice of 137 respondents from all over Europe is documented. "The social role of shame and its generation through mass media and social networks" is the title of an article that speaks of shame as a means of social control, which enables the emergence of modern social networks the possibility of influencing, manipulating and, consequently, embarrassing large dimensions and dynamics. The "Fake news in marketing: the spinach and tobacco cases" study finds false stories to be the subject of either a misunderstanding of the facts about the article by the manufacturer or a conscious lie and misleading the consumer in order to create as much profits as possible at any cost.

The article "Nevromarketing as a business strategy" summarizes the conclusion that a scientific methodology, in which the use of modern medical electronic tools leads to a more detailed analysis and interpretation of the brain's work of the consumer, provides a more realistic view of what stimulates consumers in purchasing. Article "The consistency of sales force control systems: management judgement" says that top managers must form a sales staff control system based on consistent management policies. The Slovene experience shows that the consulting behavior of sellers is at least consistently supported by coaching, which is directly provided by senior managers to sales personnel. "A cross-cultural perspective of consumer ethics and misbehaviours" is an article that is the result of a study aimed at identifying some of the most common consumer behavior at a lower level and linking them with demographic variables and

intercultural differences between the two countries. Personal financial situation, loyalty of consumers and their feelings towards society and staff influence ethics. The "Consumers' lifestyle and personal characteristics as the basis for market segmentation" describes a survey involving 131 respondents and where it was found that companies that break down the market into smaller parts or segments of consumers with similar characteristics are better equipped to meet the needs and the desire of consumers. The results of the research will be used as a basis for market segmentation and for the selection of an appropriate market segment of consumers in the analyzed market.

5 Conclusion

The present monograph of the DOBA Business School is presented in the English language, and in this way directly addresses the wider, internationally targeted audience. It is commendable that the editorial staff is aware that it is necessary simultaneously to take care of the development of professional terminology in the native language. For this purpose, DOBA Business School prepares numerous professional and scientific editions in Slovene. This publication is the result of the socially responsible business philosophy of this faculty and is reflected in the relationship of professors and online mentors to students and in their relation to society and the environment. It is the result of academic and professional awareness and efforts for social responsibility, which is promoted by the teachers' college of the faculty with the daily realization of values in the pedagogical, professional and research field, and with the support of a large range of activities and with an active role in various social actions. In this light, it is also important that monographic presentations of research and attitudes of teachers and schools as a whole follow these ethical principles and are not only subject to market logic of greater profit.

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