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Economic Spectrum is a “double-blind” reviewed scientific on-line journal with the orientation on new trends, problems, theoretical and practical questions of economy and economics. The journal is intended for specialists, scientific and teaching staff, doctorate students, university students and other people interested in education, science and research; regardless of the faith, political affiliation or nationality.

The aim of the journal is to give space for research and pedagogy to doctorate students and others:

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Dear readers,

welcome to the first issue of this year's Economic Spectrum journal which has introduced some important changes from the beginning of 2015.

The new concept of the professional and scientific journal Economic Spectrum is the result of several months' effort of the Editorial Board, which is composed of experts from academic and private sector, who have been dedicated to the economic issues in the research and in the business practice as well, for many years. I want to thank all my colleagues who participated in the preparation of this issue of the journal and who enthusiastically cooperated on the formation of its new face. To increase the level of expertise, the journal has made the review process stricter. On the one hand, this process has brought the fact that the first issue of the journal this year contains less papers as was previously common. On the other hand, the Editorial Board hopes that the journal will increase its chances to be included in the scientific databases. As usual, the journal consists of selected and positively evaluated papers, which deal with various economic issues.

The Editorial Board will be glad to receive and evaluate other interesting papers for formation of other issues of the journal, as well as, proposals from interested professionals who would like to join us as reviewers. In the near future, the Editorial Board is considering publishing thematic issues of the journal. You will be informed about these on our website.

I look forward to our cooperation on creating the high quality professional and scientific journal, as this way we will continue to pass on the pieces of knowledge and information.

Pavčina Hejduková
Editor in Chief/Šéfredaktorka

Vážení čtenáři,

vítám Vás u prvního letošního čísla časopisu Ekonomické spektrum, který od začátku roku 2015 doznal podstatných změn.

Nová koncepce odborného a vědeckého časopisu Ekonomické spektrum je výsledkem několikaměsíčního úsilí Redakční rady časopisu, která je tvořena odborníky z řad akademiků i soukromé sféry, kteří se ekonomickým otázkám výzkumně i prakticky věnují mnoho let.

Tímto chci poděkovat všem kolegům, kteří se podíleli na přípravě tohoto čísla časopisu a kteří se s nadšením ponořili do utváření jeho nové tváře.

Z důvodu zvyšování úrovně časopisu bylo zpřísněno recenzní řízení, což je na straně jedné viditelné v tom, že první letošní číslo je tvořeno menším množstvím příspěvků, než bylo doposud standardem. Na druhé straně si od toho Redakční rada slibuje, že zpřísněné recenzní řízení povede ke zvýšení šancí časopisu být zařazen do vědeckých databází. Jak bylo zvykem, časopis sestává z příspěvků vybraných a pozitivně hodnocených, a to na různorodá ekonomická témata.

Redakční rada časopisu bude ráda za zaslání dalších zajímavých příspěvků pro tvorbu dalších čísel časopisu a taktéž za zájemce o vypracování recenzentských posudků. Do budoucna se uvažuje o vydání tematických čísel časopisu, o čemž budete informováni na našich webových stránkách.

Těším se, že společně budeme vytvářet kvalitní odborný a vědecký časopis a předávat si tak inspirující a zajímavé poznatky a informace.

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COPING AND STRESS MANAGEMENT FOR MANAGERS

Erika Hančovská

Abstract

The aim of this article is to give a theoretical overview of the problem of dealing with personal and work burden and, last but not least, coping with difficult situations and burden in management. The study of questions dealing with issues such as personal and work burden, coping with stressful situations in management is becoming more and more popular. Coping with difficult and stressful situations is today a broadly discussed topic among people from the professional public. Managers are daily exposed to difficult and stressful situations and in order to solve them they need to collect all their forces leading to a greater or lesser success. Work-related stress and its coping in management bring new challenging situations as well. The study explains that the answer may be useful for any layperson. The given paper explores the influence of stress on the personality of managers not only in various crisis situations but also in the contemporary conditions of modern market economy.

Key words: Coping. Difficult situation. Work burden. Crisis situation. Manager. Stress management. Life style.

Abstrakt

Cieľom tohto článku je poskytnúť teoretický prehľad o problematike zaoberajúcej sa osobným a pracovným zaťažením a v neposlednom rade aj zvládaním ťažkých záťažových situácií v oblasti riadenia. Štúdie otázok zaoberajúcich sa otázkami, ako je osobná a pracovná záťaž, zvládanie záťažových situácií v manažmente, sú stále viac a viac populárne. Ako sa vyrovnáť s náročnými a stresovými situáciami je dnes široko diskutovanou témou medzi ľuďmi z radov odbornej verejnosti. Manažéri sú denne vystavení záťažovým a stresovým situáciám. K ich riešeniu je nutné zhromaždiť všetky ich sily, ktoré vedú k väčším či menším úspechom. Pracovný stres a jeho zvládanie v oblasti manažmentu prinesie rovnako nové náročné situácie. Štúdia vysvetľuje, že odpoveď môže byť užitočná aj pre laickú verejnosť. Predkladaný dokument skúma vplyv stresu na osobnosti manažérov nielen v rôznych krízových situáciách, ale aj v súčasných podmienkach modernej trhovej ekonomiky.

Kľúčové slová: Coping. Záťažová situácia. Pracovná záťaž. Krízová situácia. Manažér. Zvládanie stresu. Životný štýl.

JEL: M10, M12,

INTRODUCTION

Researchers examine the relation between the regular "healthy" circumstances and events and the stressful ones. With the increased number of stressful situations a number of managers facing effective adaptations to the existing conditions increase. Due to these events the diseases related to the managers adaptation or "civilization" are developed. (Bratská, 1992) On the other hand stressful circumstances cannot be considered to be undesirable in general terms as they stimulate the managers' psychic and physical power and they make them find new solutions to the difficult problems and develop the managers' personality; stress is also like a motivator – people who experience stress are motivated to do something to deal with its sources.

The main purpose of the article is to give a theoretical overview of the problem dealing with personal and work burden and, last but not least, coping with difficult situations and burden in management. The contribution explains the basic terms associated with problems of stress in the profession of Manager, its symptoms and impacts on performance of manager, point to how to eliminate stress at the work. Effective stress management can be considered as an indicator of psychological health.

After question clarification, professionals can help their clients as well as their managers. It can lead to a higher quality level of both advisory and crisis interventions. (Vojtovič, 2011) Stress should not be underestimated as it can be very useful. People need it in order to perform well but too much of it is harmful. Companies prefer the so-called resistant people, i.e. people who can better cope with stressful situations and work under pressure. Moreover, these companies deal with the fact how to eliminate stress and, at the same time, not to underestimate the risk of economic losses. In general, it is better if people can work in workplaces with high level of stress and that is why this ability is important while recruitment process. (Štefančíková, 2013) At some positions, this criterion is formal and strict while at some other it is only a part of one's profile. Stress elimination is the question of communication, teamwork but also of removal of its sources.

1. IDENTIFY THE SOURCES OF STRESS IN WORK MANAGERS

Selye Hans a scientist who popularized the concept of stress, said, "Stress as a scientific concept suffers the misfortune of being too widely known and too poorly understood". Despite the fact that stress is one of the most common human experiences, it is surprisingly difficult to identify. Scientists say that stress is a force or event that impairs normal stability, balance or functioning.

Down in the figure 1 the stress management center is designed to help managers figure these things out and find what works best for them in dealing with the stress in their life.

Figure 1: Stress management



Source: Elixir Services, (2012)

Stress management starts with identifying the sources of stress in work managers. Their true sources of stress aren't always obvious, and it's all too easy to overlook their own stress-inducing thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Managers may know that they are constantly worried about work deadlines. In determining the actual resources of stress, we look closely at habits, attitude, and excuses of managers (Smith and Segal, 2015):

- Manager explains away stress as temporary - "I just have a million things going on right now".
- Manager defines stress as an integral part of your work or home life - "Things are always crazy around here"; or as a part of your personality - "I have a lot of nervous energy, that's all".
- Manager blames his stress on other people or outside events, or views it as entirely normal and unexceptional.

2. COPING STRATEGY

Increased interest in the study of managerial behavior under the pressure of life conditions was and still is linked with seeking effective ways of managers' adaptation to difficult conditions of dynamic lifestyle which are caused by these events. Managers cope with stressful situations in different ways. Coping strategies - they may be understood as coping patterns managers use while coping with difficult situations. (Oravcová, 2004) A number of authors dealing with the study of the given issue agree in defining coping and coping strategies. There are no significant differences among them. There are many healthy ways to manage and cope with stress, but they all require change. Manager can either change the situation or change his reaction. Since everyone manager has a unique response to stress, there is no solution to managing it. No single method works for everyone or in every situation, so experiment with different techniques and strategies. According to Atkinson coping has three strategic forms: *strategy focused on a problem solution, strategy focused on social support and strategy focused on escape.*

2.1 Strategy focused on a problem solution

This strategy includes behaviour such as a problem analysis, setting up a plan for its solution and active behaviour. The strategy of resolving conflicts consists of defining the conflict, searching for alternative strategies, assessing the alternative scenarios, strategies from the point of view of effort and benefit and finally it consists of selecting alternatives and applying the selected alternative. (Peck, 2010) This strategy is usually successful in relation to the managers' personal experience and self-governance. Results gained in longitudinal research prove that managers preferring the problem-focused strategy show lower level of depression after the conflicts are resolved. Studies prove that conflict-centered strategy leads to a short period of depression without any respect to the initial level of depression. Some rules to solve the problem (Chiesa and Serretti, 2010):

- *Learn how to say "no"* – a manager needs to know his limits and stick to them. Whether in your personal or professional life, taking on more than s/he can handle is a surefire recipe for stress.
- *Avoid people who stress you out* – If someone consistently causes stress in manager's life and he can't turn the relationship around, one should limit the amount of time spent with that person or end the relationship entirely.
- *Take control of your environment* – If the evening news makes a manager anxious, turn the TV off. If traffic's got his tense, take a longer but less-traveled route.
- *Avoid hot-button topics* – If you get upset over religion or politics, cross them off manager conversation list. If s/he repeatedly argues about the same subject with the same people, stop bringing it up or excuse yourself when it's the topic of discussion.
- *Pare down manager to-do list* – Analyze his schedule, responsibilities, and daily tasks. If manager have got too much on his plate, distinguish between the "shoulds" and the

"musts." Drop tasks that aren't truly necessary to the bottom of the list or eliminate them entirely. (Smith and Segal, 2015)

2.2 Strategy focused on social support

It is characterized by the fact that managers focus on reducing their emotions they experience in a given stressful situation whereas a change in the given situation may not necessarily happen. The type of strategy applied in difficult circumstances depends on the manager's personality, type of the stressor. Preferring the social support strategy means that managers try to prevent themselves from being overwhelmed by negative emotions and to postpone dealing with their own stressor. Some rules to solve the problem (Smith and Segal, 2015):

- *Get support.* Close relationships are vital to helping managers through times of stress so reach out to family and friends. Simply sharing your feelings face to face with another person can help relieve some of the stress. The other person doesn't have to ret to "fix" their problems; he or she just has to be a good listener. Accepting support is not a sign of weakness and it won't mean the manager is a burden to others. In fact, most friends will be flattered that you trust them enough to confide in them, and it will only strengthen your bond.
- *Feelings manager expresses instead of bottling them up.* If something or someone is bothering him, he communicates his concerns in an open and respectful way. If he doesn't give voice to his feelings, resentment will build and the situation will likely remain the same.
- *Compromise.* When a manager asks someone to change their behavior, s/he should be willing to do the same. If both are willing to bend at least a little, manager has a good chance of finding a happy middle ground.
- *Assertiveness.* Deal with problems head on, doing your best to anticipate and prevent them.
- *Manage time better.* Poor time management can cause a lot of stress. When he is stretched too thin and running behind, it's hard to stay calm and focused. But if the manager plans ahead and makes sure he doesn't overextend himself, he can alter the amount of stress he is under.
- *Share your feelings.* Talk to a trusted friend face to face or make an appointment with a therapist. The simple act of expressing what he is going through can be very cathartic, even if there's nothing you can do to alter the stressful situation. Opening up is not a sign of weakness and it won't make him a burden to others. In fact, most friends will be flattered that their trust them enough to confide in them, and it will only strengthen their bond.
- *Learn to forgive.* Accept the fact that the manager lives in an imperfect world and that people make mistakes.
- *Connect with others.* Spend time with positive people who enhance the manager's life. A strong support system will buffer you from the negative effects of stress.

2.3 Strategy focused on escape

This strategy is defensive and it should result in forgetting demanding situations and not admitting the fact that a certain problem exists. These coping strategies may temporarily reduce stress, but they cause more damage in the long run. This strategy can include (Roberts, et al., 2010):

- smoking;
- drinking too much;
- overeating or underreating;
- zoning out for hours in front of the TV or computer;

- withdrawing from friends, family, and activities;
- using pills or drugs to relax; sleeping too much; procrastinating;
- filling up every minute of the day to avoid facing problems;
- taking out your stress on others (lashing out, angry outbursts, physical violence).

These are unhealthy ways of coping with stress. People who are under chronic stress often turn to alcohol or tobacco for relief. Stress compounds the damage these self-destructive habits cause under ordinary circumstances. Many people also resort to unhealthy eating habits, smoking, or passive activities, such as watching television when they are stressed. Alcohol affects receptors in the brain that reduce stress. Lack of nicotine increases stress in smokers, which creates a cycle of dependency on smoking.

Alcohol temporarily reduces anxiety and worry, but too much can cause anxiety as it wears off. Drinking to relieve job stress may also eventually lead to alcohol abuse and dependence. Similarly, smoking when you're feeling stressed and overwhelmed may seem calming, but nicotine is a powerful stimulant – leading to higher, not lower, levels of anxiety.

The American Psychological Association conducted its most recent Stress in America Survey in 2011. Representative samples of 1,226 adults in the general population, 1,221 adults living with chronic illnesses, and 300 adult caregivers. The survey found that Americans are experiencing somewhat less stress than 5 years earlier, but many individuals perceive their stress levels as having increased over the same time period. People are also engaging in unhealthy habits due to stress. Although many people understand the benefits of stress reduction, they are not taking advantage of strategies, such as exercise.

Specific results include (Hetrick, et al., 2010):

- Most Americans report feeling moderate-to-high stress levels.
- 44% of adults report that their stress level has increased in the past 5 years.
- Money, work (concerns about job loss), and the economy are major sources of stress.
- 39% of adults report overeating or eating unhealthy foods due to stress.
- More than half of Americans acknowledge that exercise is important, but only a third were satisfied with their level of exercise.

More detailed classification of coping strategies comes from Janke and Erdmannová (Živčicová, 2013): undervalue (attributing to oneself lower level of stress comparing to others), guilt rejecting (emphasizing the fact, that responsibility is out of one's hands), diversion (diversion from the strain or tendency to the situations incompatible with stress), alternative fulfilment (choosing positive activities and situations), situation control (analysing, planning and carrying out the plan with the purpose of control and solution of the problem), reaction control (ensuring and maintaining the control of one's emotions), positive self-instruction (attributing various competences and control tools to oneself), need for a social support (the will to secure help and social support), avoiding (determination to prevent or avoid the strain), escape tendencies (resign tendencies in order to escape from stressful situation), perseveration (inability to free one's mind from the stressful ideas), resignation (giving up to the helplessness and despair) and self-accusation (attributing the strain to one's own faulty action).

From the above-mentioned it is obvious, that coping strategies can be sorted into three main groups:

- active – instrumental, problem oriented, aimed to deal with strain;
- emotional – social, experience oriented, aimed to change of attitude and inner resistance;
- escapist, rejection oriented, aimed at indifference or resignation.

Research confirms that application of coping strategies division into coping focused on, problem and coping focused on emotions, social support and focus on escape may encounter many pitfalls in practice and interpersonal relationships. A group of researchers who, in their research, focus on the identification of stable factors influencing the choice of behavioral strategies in difficult situations analyses mainly the influence of personal characteristics on coping. (Frankovský, 2009) This includes, for instance, a finding that managers characterized by a higher level of self-esteem rely on problem-oriented strategies more often as compared to those managers with low or lower level of self-esteem. It may be associated with a stronger confidence in their abilities to solve the problem. Similarly, differences between managers with inner and outer localization of controls are interpreted. Another interesting finding is that managers with high level of neuroticism incline to the use of strategies focused on emotions, in this context, expresses his assumption that managers with inner control, high self-esteem and lower neuroticism are more flexible in the choice of appropriate coping strategies with regards to the conditions of a situation. (Lisá and Hulín, 2009)

Understanding the controllability of situations seems to be very important while choosing a particular coping strategy and response to such a situation is problem solving, whereas in situations which seem to be difficult to control or change managers tend to use emotional strategies and strategies of avoidance.

CONCLUSION

Stress is one of the burning issues that organizations have to deal with so that managers can comfortably produce quality work. Stress causes an imbalance in one's life because it leads to depression and thus damages health, attitude and work behavior. Causes of stress are called stressors, which can be workplace conflict, role conflict, role ambiguity and workload. Many researchers are of the view that stress has a negative impact on managers' performance but at the same time researches have proved that some stressful work conditions are critical to keep employees productive.

It's in a manager's best interest to keep stress levels in the workplace to a minimum. Managers can act as positive role models, especially in times of high stress. If a respected manager can remain calm in stressful work situations, it is much easier for his or her employees to also remain calm.

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Abstract

The basic ideas of sustainable development are mutual connections between people, environment and economic systems. Sustainability is a perfect model, which should be aimed to achieve by leading long-range development policy. The aim of the article is the analysis and assessment of the progress while implementing the rules of sustainability taking into account headline indicators. Sustainability indicators are informational and diagnostic tools which enable to assess and manage social, economic and environmental zones. Headline indicators in the European Union are presented in monitoring reports in the EU Sustainable Development Strategy. Duration of study covers 2005-2012 period. The results of conducted research show constant progress in implementing the sustainability concept.

Key words: Sustainable development. Sustainable Development Indicators. Level of development

JEL: C80, C82, O11

INTRODUCTION

Socio-economic sustainable development is one of the greatest challenges in the present world. It is the complex process which if staggered is the change for current and most of all future generations. The essence of sustainable development is to ensure lasting improvement of quality of life of present and future generations through the development of an appropriate balance between the three types of capital: economic, human and natural (Filip, 2005, 2006). Taking into account economic processes happening in the European Union, including Poland, it may be noticed that the concept of sustainability originated and is constantly being developed. It became one of the priorities, however in large part more theoretical than practical. It is important that the idea would become an institutional rule for the whole European Union. Moreover the objective is that member countries treat sustainability as a base to their policies. "Sustainable development" must, therefore, be seen as an unending process-defined not by fixed goals or the specific means of achieving them, but by an approach to creating change through continuous learning and adaptation. (Mog, 2004)

1. AIM AND METHODOLOGY

The aim of the article is the analysis of progress made by the EU countries in implementing the rules of sustainability taking into account headline indicators prepared by the European Union. Headline indicators in the European Union are presented in monitoring reports on the EU Sustainable Development Strategy (cf. Reports, 2009, 2011, Monitoring). The period of time which is covered is 2005-2012. It is highly important to choose adequate indicators to measure the implementation of sustainability rules. It is a difficult task as publications in the subject area abound with lots of classifications and typology of indicators of sustainable development (Bell and Morse, 2000; Grzebyk and Stec, 2014; Stec, et. al., 2014). The principle task of indicators is to take cognition of the EU priorities and also establish legible structures that enhance ease in communicating levels of goals achievement and advances in the implementation of strategies for lasting development. The necessity here is flexibility of the set of indicators, which should respond to changing objectives and priorities (Rinne et. al., 2013; Sebastien, Bauler, 2013). A hierarchical structure of indicators covering 3 levels of details

was designed in the European Union on the basis of documents and discussions in the subject area:

1. The so-called Headline indicators,
2. Operational indicators, and
3. Explanatory indicators.

Indicators at level 3 were further divided into 10 theme groups that reflect the seven challenges of the sustainable development strategy. The theme gradually transcends from economic through social and environmental as far as institutional aspects and global partnerships (Rinne et. al., 2013). Subthemes which permit the presentation of operational objectives and strategic activities are spotlighted in each theme. They also, in a natural way, reflect the main objective which is to achieve a prosperous economy based on the principles of sustainable development, including the guiding principles of good management. Indicators in each subgroup were aggregated to form level 2 indicators. Following the aggregation of level 2 indicators headline indicators for theme groups (level 1 indicators) were obtained. Table 1 presents indicators from level 3, level 2 (operational) as well as level 1 (global, leading) indicators for a given theme group – „socio-economic development“.

Tab.1. Level 1, 2 and 3 Indicators in the theme group „Socio-Economic Development“

Indicator for level 1 (Headline indicator)	Indicator for level 2 (operational)	Indicator for level 3	
Real GDP per capita	Economic development		
	Investments	Regional disproportions in employment	
		Regional disproportions in employment due to sex	
		Unemployment due to sex	
		Unemployment due to age	
	Competitiveness, innovation and Eco-efficiency		
	Labour efficiency	Total expenditure on R&D	
		Energy intensity	
		Real effective exchange rate	
		Turnover from innovation	
	Employment		
	Overall employment rate	Female employment	
		Employment of persons with higher education	
		Regional disproportions in employment	
		Regional disproportions in employment due to sex	
		Unemployment due to sex	
Unemployment due to age			

Source: Own elaborations based on Kulesza, M., Ostasiewicz, S. (2011). Organizing EU Countries according to levels of Sustainable Development, *AE Scientific Papers in Częstochowa*, vol. V, pp. 44-45

Three subthemes covering economic development, competitiveness, innovation and natural efficiency as well as employment were highlighted in the „socio-economic development“ group. Indicators for other theme groups were constructed in a similar way. The structure created does not permit the avoidance of situations, where the theme areas being considered have some common parts i.e., mutually interacting and mutually interdependent. Some causative factors, for example energy use impact on development in varied ways, but cannot be repeatedly represented in the set indicators. The essence of certain theme areas, however, encourages their inclusion in majority of critical issues that are socio-economic and environmental in nature. This is for instance the case with climate change, energy use, production and consumption patterns.

2. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Table 2 presents headline indicators marked from X1 to X10. Stimulating are features whose high values are desirable phenomenon from given view-points (eg., level of sustainability), whilst their low values are adverse phenomenon. Non-stimulating are features whose low values are desirable phenomenon from given view-points, whilst their high values are non-desirable (Strahl, 2006). Stimulating features are following: X1, X2, X4, X5, X7, X10, the rest are non-stimulating.

Tab 2. Theme Areas and Headline Indicators of Sustainable Development

Theme	Headline indicators
1.Socio-economic development	X1-Growth rate of real GDP per capita (Percentage change on previous year, EUR per inhabitant)
2.Sustainable consumption and production	X2-Resource productivity (2000=100)
3.Social inclusion	X3-People at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion
4.Demographic changes	X4-Employment rate of older workers
5.Public health	X5-Healthy life years and life expectancy at birth
6.Climate change and energy	X6-Greenhouse gas emissions (1990=100) X7-Share of renewable energy in gross final energy consumption X8-Primary energy consumption
7. Sustainable transport	X9-Energy consumption of transport relative to GDP (2000=100)
8. Natural resources*	Common bird index Fish catches taken from stocks outside safe biological limits: Status of fish stocks managed by the EU in the North-East Atlantic
9.Global partnership	X10-Official development assistance as share of gross national income
10.Good governance	No headline indicator

* No indicator was considered for the area of "Natural resources" due to lack of data from EU countries
Source: Own elaborations based on: Eurostat (www.eurostat.ec.europa.eu).

Table 3 presents the values of headline indicators achieved in 2005 by all European Union countries.

Tab 3. Headline Indicators of Sustainable Development for EU Countries in 2005

	Country	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9	X10
1.	Austria	1.7	101.76	16.8	31.8	60.1	120.02	24	32.6	119.3	0.52
2.	Belgium	1.2	106.34	22.6	31.8	62.3	100.42	2.3	51.2	94.9	0.53
3.	Bulgaria	6.9	103.97	61.3	34.7	71.9	58.34	9.5	18.9	109.1	0.06
4.	Cyprus	2.4	93.64	25.3	50.6	58.2	149.62	3.1	2.5	97.7	0.09
5.	Czech Republic	6.5	118.94	19.6	44.5	60	74.43	6	42.2	114.3	0.11
6.	Denmark	2.1	95.04	17.2	59.5	68.4	94.41	15.6	19.3	103.9	0.81
7.	Estonia	9.1	93.25	25.9	56.1	52.4	45.82	17.5	5.4	93.5	0.08
8.	Finland	2.6	103.35	17.2	52.7	52.5	98.04	28.9	33.3	93.7	0.46
9.	Germany	0.7	115.57	18.4	45.5	54.8	80.9	6.7	317.2	90.6	0.36
10.	France	1.1	111.65	18.9	38.5	64.6	101.59	9.5	261.7	92.2	0.47
11.	Greece	1.9	102.02	29.4	41.6	67.4	128.28	7.3	30.6	92	0.17
12.	Hungary	4.2	79.56	32.1	33	54.3	80.57	4.5	25.4	106.2	0.11
13.	Ireland	3.7	103.86	25	51.6	64	127.78	2.8	14.7	98	0.42
14.	Italy	0.2	114.75	25	31.4	67.8	111.55	5.9	178.9	100.4	0.29
15.	Latvia	11.3	120.31	46.3	49.5	53.2	42.49	32.3	4.5	96	0.07
16.	Lithuania	9.6	97.34	41	49.2	54.6	47.77	17	7.9	93.2	0.06
17.	Luxembourg	3.6	115.17	17.3	31.7	62.4	108.31	1.4	4.8	121.9	0.79
18.	Malta	2.9	68.49	20.5	30.8	70.4	147.42	0.3	1	67.4	0.17
19.	Netherlands	1.8	114.99	16.7	46.1	63.5	101.84	2.3	69.3	99.5	0.82
20.	Poland	3.7	113.8	45.3	27.2	66.9	85.47	7	88	108.6	0.07
21.	Portugal	0.3	107.3	26.1	50.5	57.1	144.66	19.5	25	104	0.21
22.	Romania	4.8	68.11	45.9	39.4	62.6	57.89	17.6	36.7	93.6	0.07
23.	Slovenia	3.8	110.4	18.5	30.7	60.1	110.16	16	7	99.3	0.11
24.	Slovakia	6.6	91.95	32	30.3	56.6	70.55	5.5	17.8	129.4	0.12
25.	Spain	1.9	93.3	24.3	43.1	63.4	154.22	8.4	135.9	102.4	0.27
26.	Sweden	2.7	102.47	14.4	69.4	63.2	93.42	40.5	48.7	92	0.94
27.	United Kingdom	2.6	117.29	24.8	56.8	65.5	88.57	1.4	223	90.7	0.47

Source: Own elaborations based on: Eurostat (www.eurostat.ec.europa.eu).

While analyzing the values of X1 indicator- Growth rate of real GDP per capita in 2005 it may be easily noticed that it was positive for member countries. The value ranged from 0.2 to 11.3. The highest values were obtained in Latvia (11.3), Lithuania (9.6) and Estonia (9.1). However, the lowest growth rate value of real GDP per capita was observed in Italy (0.2), Portugal (0.3) and Germany (0.7). The average value for the X1 indicator for EU countries covered by the study was 3.7. The differences between the countries measured using the coefficient of variation can be considered as rather strong. EU countries may also be characterized by a rather strong right-handed asymmetry, which means that most of them attained growth rate values of real GDP per capita below the average.

Constantly improving values of indicators for resource productivity is a signal for the improvements in the resources usage. In 18 European Union countries increase in X2 indicator – Resource productivity was observed. Worth mentioning here is the fact that Lithuania, Denmark, Cyprus, Spain, Estonia, Slovakia, Hungary, Malta and Romania did not notice improvement in the efficiency of resource usage. A significant headline indicator of sustainable development is the one which specifies the risk of poverty and social exclusion. It is called X3 indicator - People at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion. The best situation in 2005 in respect of mentioned indicator was in Sweden (14.4), Netherlands (16.7) and Austria (16.8). However, the worst, was observed in Bulgaria (61.3), Latvia (46.3) and Romania (45.9). The average indicator for all countries which were covered by the study was about 27. For majority of EU countries The People at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion indicator was below the mean, which is corroborated by the asymmetry coefficient of 1.444. It can be understood as a positive phenomenon. Countries characterized by the highest values of X4 indicator- Employment rate of older workers in 2005 were Sweden, Denmark and United Kingdom, while Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia were at the end of the rating countries covered by the study.

Another indicator of sustainability in European Union members is X5- Healthy life years and life expectancy at birth. Taking this indicator into account the highest values were obtained in Bulgaria (71.9), Malta (70.4) and Denmark (68.4), while the lowest in Estonia (52.4), Finland (52.5) and Latvia (53.2). The average value of X5 indicator was 61.4 years.

In 2005 Latvia, Estonia, and Lithuania were the countries with the lowest indicators of greenhouse gas emissions. Countries that exceeded the level were Spain (by 54.22% in 2005 compared to 1990), Cyprus (by 49.62%), and Malta (by 47.42%). Out of 27 European Union members 14 can be characterized by the by lower greenhouse gas emissions compared to 1990. The coefficient of variation was in 2005 reaching almost 90%, which proves that EU countries were strongly differentiated. Leaders here were Sweden (40.5%), Latvia (32.3%), and Finland (28.9%), while the average level was 11.6%. In the majority of countries the share of renewable energy in gross final energy consumption was below the average (it means right-handed asymmetry). Another indicator is X8-Primary energy consumption. In 2005 the lowest value was obtained in Malta, Cyprus and Latvia. On the other hand the highest Germany, France and United Kingdom. Taking into account the values of mentioned indicator EU countries were very strongly differentiated, coefficient of differentiation was about 135%. Subsequent headline indicator of sustainability in EU countries is called X9-Energy consumption of transport relative to GDP. Comparing to the year 2000 lower values were reached by 16 EU countries. Leading members were here Malta, Germany, and United Kingdom. The last positions in the national rating were taken by Slovakia, Luxembourg and Austria. Indicator that ranged between 0.06% and 0.94% in 2005 was X10-Official development assistance as share of gross national income indicator. The highest values were obtained in Sweden, Netherlands and Denmark while the lowest were in Lithuania, Bulgaria, and Romania. Average value of the X10 factor was 0.32%. Moreover strong differentiation was observed whose coefficient of variation was about 85%. To assess the implementation of sustainability there are also headline indicators presented achieved by the European Union countries in 2012 (table 4).

Tab 4. Headline Indicators of Sustainable Development for EU Countries in 2012

	Country	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9	X10
1.	Austria	0,4	117,94	18,5	43,1	62,5	107,57	32,1	31,8	100,3	0,28
2.	Belgium	-0,8	117,86	21,6	39,5	65,4	85,12	6,8	48,7	86,5	0,47
3.	Bulgaria	1,2	114,46	49,3	45,7	65,7	60,45	16,3	17,8	100,1	0,08
4.	Cyprus	-3,9	108,68	27,1	50,7	64,0	147,47	6,8	2,5	87,6	0,11
5.	Czech Republic	-1,1	146,71	15,4	49,3	64,1	68,42	11,2	40,1	98,6	0,12
6.	Denmark	-0,7	115,28	19,0	60,8	61,4	83,39	26	17,9	89,4	0,84
7.	Estonia	4,0	100,78	23,4	60,6	57,2	51,81	25,2	6,0	84,2	0,11
8.	Finland	-1,5	117,74	17,2	58,2	56,2	96,56	34,3	32,8	91,5	0,53
9.	Germany	0,5	121,06	19,6	61,5	57,9	74,48	12,4	297,6	80,4	0,37
10.	France	-0,5	124,94	19,1	44,5	63,9	88,90	13,4	246,4	87,1	0,45
11.	Greece	-6,7	132,35	34,6	36,4	64,9	109,61	15,1	25,9	77,3	0,13
12.	Hungary	-1,2	152,63	32,4	36,9	60,5	67,19	9,6	21,5	95,9	0,10
13.	Ireland	-0,1	220,51	29,4	49,3	68,3	105,82	7,2	13,6	78,0	0,47
14.	Italy	-2,7	134,72	29,9	40,4	61,5	95,30	13,5	155,2	91,2	0,14
15.	Latvia	6,5	127,54	36,2	52,8	59,1	44,67	35,8	4,4	88,5	0,07
16.	Lithuania	5,1	106,65	32,5	51,7	61,6	44,31	21,7	5,9	88,2	0,13
17.	Luxembourg	-2,4	137,98	18,4	41,0	66,4	100,22	3,1	4,4	102,8	1,00
18.	Malta	-0,1	76,19	23,1	33,6	72,4	151,27	1,4	0,9	78,0	0,23
19.	Netherlands	-1,6	119,06	15,0	58,6	58,9	94,67	4,5	67,4	90,4	0,71
20.	Poland	2,0	103,56	26,7	38,7	62,9	87,56	11,0	93,3	111,6	0,09
21.	Portugal	-2,8	103,5	25,3	46,5	58,6	116,49	24,6	20,9	94,8	0,28
22.	Romania	0,8	59,66	41,7	41,4	57,8	50,46	22,9	33,6	100,0	0,09
23.	Slovenia	-2,7	152,17	19,6	32,9	55,6	105,88	20,2	6,9	118,4	0,13
24.	Slovakia	1,6	120,09	20,5	43,1	53,1	63,19	10,4	15,7	96,0	0,09
25.	Spain	-1,7	161,17	28,2	43,9	65,7	126,43	14,3	121,3	83,3	0,16
26.	Sweden	0,2	107,56	15,6	73,0	70,7	86,03	51,0	48,0	79,1	0,97
27.	United	-1,2	146,97	24,1	58,1	64,5	74,81	4,2	195,4	79,3	0,56

Source: Own elaborations based on: Eurostat (www.eurostat.ec.europa.eu).

X1 indicator – Growth rate of Real GDP per capita indicator values ranged from -6.7 to 6.5 in 2012. Countries with the most positive values concerning this indicator were (6.5), Lithuania (5.1) and Estonia (4.0). Despite the fact that GDP per capita was in 2012 lower than in 2005 mentioned countries obtained the leadership. X1 indicator had the lowest values in Greece (-6.7), Cyprus (-3.9) and Portugal (-2.8). It is worth mentioning that in 2012 only 10 out of 27 EU countries covered by the study can be features by the positive growth rate values of real GDP per capita. In 2012 coefficient of variation for X1 indicator was about 7.8 (78.0%) which is much higher than in 2005 (0.782 =78.2%). This proves huge differences between member countries and marks the difficult economic condition in 2012 in majority of the EU countries. On the other hand benefitting changes in the resource productivity were noted in 2012. Values of X2 indicator were lower than in 2000 only in two countries: Malta (40.34%) and Romania (23.81%).

Next indicator, called X3- People at-risk-of-poverty or social exclusion in 2012 ranged between 15 and 49.3. Countries which appeared to have the lowest rates of X3 were the Netherlands, Czech Republic and Sweden, while the highest were achieved by Bulgaria, Romania and Latvia. Leaders in X4 rating factor in 2012 were Sweden and Denmark, whilst United Kingdom overtaken by Germany.

The average healthy life years as well as life expectancy at birth (X5) in 2012 comparing to 2005 increased to 62.3 years. Leading position out of all EU countries were taken by Malta, Sweden and Ireland. He last positions were held by Slovenia, Slovakia and Finland.

Taking into account X6 indicator no significant changes could be observed. The first places were taken by Malta, Cyprus, and Spain. It is worth emphasizing that comparing the number of countries with greenhouse gas emissions lower than in the year 1990 increased to 18.

When taking the usage of renewable energy sources into accounts leaders in 2012 were Sweden, Latvia and Finland. On the other hand the lowest values of X7 indicator were observed

in Malta, Luxembourg and the UK, which is similar to the figures from 2005. The average level of this indicator was 16.9% for all countries covered. Moreover the EU countries continue to be significantly differentiated with coefficient of variation (about 70%).

The average level for the primary energy consumption indicator (X8 factor) in 2012 for all UE countries declined if compared to 2005. It is worth outlining that neither the leaders nor the bottom countries in the rating changed their positions.

Low values of X9 factor were achieved in 2012 in 21 EU countries while comparing to 2000. In case of Energy consumption of transport relative to GDP the leaders in 2012 were Greece, Ireland, and Malta. Last Places in the rating were taken by Slovenia, Poland and Luxembourg. The last headline indicator X10-Official development assistance as share of gross national income indicator fluctuated between 0.07 and 1.0 %. Luxembourg, Sweden, and Denmark were here leading countries. On the other hand the last positions were held by Latvia, Bulgaria, and Slovakia.

CONCLUSION

In the last years constant growth of awareness and social care about the impact of human activities on natural environment may be observed (Dorcak and Delina, 2011; Pukała, 2013, 2014). Sustainability is about such usage of resources that they will be able in the future to regenerate and stay on the same level. Moreover it concerns preserving the balance between economic development, social integration and healthy environment for the future generations. Fulfilling the rules of sustainable development is especially in the interest of European Union. The aim of sustainability is thus assuring constant growth of life quality and prosperity on Earth for current and future generations.

European Union countries are forced to realize the sustainability assumptions by the numerous documentations, among them the most important are *Europe 2020* or *Agenda 21*. Governments currently as well as in the future have to take decisions which will enable them to fulfill accepted obligations. That is why the analysis and assessment of progress made by them is so important. Progress measurement by credible information is a key factor to success. It increases the government responsibility and gives people the tools thanks to which they may actively participate in defining and assessing the aims of this policy (Krupa 2008; Mizla and Pudło, 2012; Ochotnický et al., 2011). Taking into account research result it may be emphasized that member countries realize the policy of sustainable development which is a proof for the achieved headline indicators. Constant progress in the examined countries were made even with reference for X2- Resource productivity, X5-Healthy life years and life expectancy at birth, X9 - Official development assistance as share of gross national income or X10-Official development assistance as share of gross national income. European Union policy consequently aims at realizing the assumptions of sustainable development.

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IDENTIFYING SOURCES OF SMEs FINANCING IN SELECTED COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION. APPROACH AND LIMITATIONS

Paulina Filip

Abstract

In the last years access to finance has been considered a pressing issue by a big population of small and medium enterprises -SMEs, in due to financial crisis. In transition economy in Central-Eastern countries it is one of scientific important problems for solving. Analysis provided in this area shows that economic activities still change. Making financial decisions made by contemporary enterprises creates new solutions. The aim of the paper was to compare SME perceptions of loans in selected EU countries. The analysis comprised of indicators based on the take-up of different sources of debt finance in small and medium enterprises in Central-Eastern countries existing in European community. Based on the take-up of different sources of debt finance, SME perceptions of loan finance and actual data on interest rates the author observes different regional changes. Results of analyses were benchmark to reaction for all European communities EU-28. The essence was to investigate whether the period of crisis and long-term political and economic changes of these countries are similar and know their behavior in relation to the financial model Continental Model (Germany) based mainly on the use of bank credit in current activities by SMEs.

Key words: financial model, access to debt finance, small and medium enterprises, countries of Central - Eastern EU, debt burden, EU-28.

JEL: F 360, F 340, G 020

INTRODUCTION

One of the important barriers of small and medium enterprise sector in terms of basics is the financial barrier. At the stage of strengthening the position of firms, implementing material investments and constant modernization the lack of own financial resources is still a significant factor limiting the decisions of the group of enterprises. The possibilities of creating the financial means from internal sources are limited and derive mostly from profits. It is important that in this capacity are possibilities of gaining money from external sources (Vanacker, Manigart, 2010). The improvement of access to financing of small and medium enterprises has a significant impact. Identification of changes in this area of business activity may have substantial meaning in further support of entrepreneurship, competitiveness, innovativeness and economic growth in European Union (Anson, Gill, 2011, Binks, 2006).

1. PURPOSE OF RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the article is to identify what is an access to capital in the group of small and medium-sized enterprises and scope and structure of capital in European countries. It is important to determine how actual conditions influence the attitudes and behavior in SMEs, particularly enterprises operating in countries of Central and Eastern Europe. The following countries were chosen for analysis Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary and Romania. Economies of these countries transitioned to free market economy at the end of the 20-th century. The countries share similar history, socio- political circumstances, similar types of socio- economic institutions, and the absence of private enterprises in early stage development.

The basic research problem was to identify if and how the countries of this region benefit from bank loans as the main source of funding. Analyses were carried out with reference to the Continental European model (named German). Chosen model used to be applied to practice by traditional forms of capital, mostly variety forms of credits and bank loans granted by credit institutions in financing process. Thus, results from analyses in attitudes of entrepreneurs from Central and Eastern Europe were related to German economy and to community EU-28 as a set of all countries. The study applied such methods of research as analysis of scientific literature and statistical measurements that include coefficient of structure, as well as the synthetic measure of overall level of financial development of an EU. The study also made use of data from Eurostat, European Commission, namely SME 's Access to Finance, Key figures on Europe, GEM Global Report Europe in Figures, Statistical Yearbooks of the Central Office of Statistics. The supplementary aim of the article is to analyze SME capital landscape and activity of SMEs, highlight the factors responsible for the performance of SMEs, consider the increasing globalization of SMEs, the impact of the financial crisis and set out recommendations for further progress in the sector.

2. DEVELOPMENT OF SME ENTERPRISES -ATTITUDES

The literature and entrepreneurs show in practice many factors which have been so important for many years in the development of SMEs. Some of them are constant, some are still changing and thus have different impact in the same conditions. We can describe many determinants which are even more important in this process. The following indicators belong to this group: entrepreneurial finance, government policy, government entrepreneurship programs, entrepreneurship education, R&D transfer, commercial and legal infrastructure, entry regulation, physical infrastructure, cultural and social norms (Vos, Yeh, Carter, Tagg, 2007). These factors are aimed at stimulating and supporting entrepreneurship activity (Allinson, Braidford, Houston, Stone, 2005). They have had significant value in the condition of functioning enterprises in the last period, which is the influence of financial crises. The entrepreneurship framework conditions are shown in the table below.

Tab. 1: The entrepreneurship framework conditions

Entrepreneurial Finance	Government Policy	Government Entrepreneurship Programs
Entrepreneurship Education	R&D Transfer	Commercial and Legal Infrastructure
Entry Regulation	Physical Infrastructure	Cultural and Social Norms

Source: GEM Global Report 2010, The GEM Entrepreneurship Framework Conditions, pp. 54.

Within them, one of the most important determinants is financing. It means the level, possibilities, access and availability of financial resources, both equity and debt, including grants and subsidies. Three quarters of European Union self-employed entrepreneurs say that their business is their main source of income (Wright, Stigliani, 2013). In the European Union, the results in terms of the business being the main source of income range from 96% in Hungary to 57% in Latvia (OECD Report 2013, Aho, Cornu, Georghio, Subira, 2006. For this reason, providing the capital for the development of the company from different sources is so important for its maintenance and development.

In the development processes there is still emphasized a significance of the financial system named as the financial infrastructure (Mikołajczyk, 2007). Particularly, the countries in different scope. The notion of the financial system encompasses all elements and institutions, market

characteristics, principles of regulation along with revealing significant information and practices and customs in economic activity. Generally, it may be stated that the financial system is the set of organizational means, legal regulations and economic instruments which may stimulate economic development of a country and particular economic entities. The financial system presents the possibilities of investing and financing (Szplit, 2005).

In Europe one of the popular financial institutions are banks. This system is based on credit institutions like banks, named continental. It is typical for Central-Eastern countries in Europe (Łukasik, Skórnik, 2009). The table below presents the most important problems for small and medium enterprises, which appeared at companies in the last years. It was shown at chosen neighboring countries, located closely to Poland.

Tab. 2: The most important problem for small and medium enterprises- current view

Specification	EU-28	Germany	Poland	Slovakia	Czech R.	Hungary	Romania
Finding customers	20%	30%	34%	19%	17%	16%	13%
Competition	15%	9%	13%	17%	16%	15%	16%
<i>Access to finance</i>	<i>13%</i>	<i>9%</i>	<i>10%</i>	<i>7%</i>	<i>7%</i>	<i>14%</i>	<i>14%</i>
Costs of production or labour	12%	8%	12%	8%	7%	11%	14%
Skilled staff/experienced managers	17%	26%	15%	20%	23%	18%	12%
Regulation	16%	14%	15%	17%	18%	15%	22%
Other	7%	4%	1%	12%	13%	11%	9%

Source: own processing based on SMEs' Access to Finance, Analytical Report 2013, European Commission, Brussels 2014

Nowadays the most significant problem among SMEs in Europe EU-28 is finding customers. This problem is important for 13% in Romania to 30 % of population in Germany. The average level set up by 20% entities. On the next position are situated another determinants, with the same level of significance-from 12 % to 17%. Access to finance in EU-28 countries is important for 13 % of small and medium enterprises. Enterprises from Hungary (14%), Romania (14%) and Poland (10 %) strongly emphasize this issue. In turn, for entrepreneurs from Germany, Slovakia and Czech Republic access to finance has the meaning slightly smaller. Access to finance for SMEs include the last few years, in the above evaluation of the implementation has shown that it is still a major barrier for SMEs. Thus, it is necessary to recognize problem with financing in reason to launch new solutions.

Entrepreneurship environment in Poland is comparable to other efficiency developing economies (Grzebyk, Filip, 2013). Slightly lower than average post competition and skilled staff or experienced managers are assessed. Poland is still in the process of developing effective entrepreneurship education (Pruchnicka - Grabias, Szelałowska, 2011). Highly above average is only dynamics finding customers and openness of internal market. It should be clearly underlined that financial difficulties like unprofitable businesses and problems getting finance were mentioned most often as the reason for discontinuing a business. The rate of business discontinuance is highest in the factor-driven countries, with personal reasons indicated more often as a reason for discontinuing comparing to the other economies. Across all the economies, however, financial issues (unprofitable businesses or problems obtaining financing) weigh most heavily in business exits.

3. SOURCES OF FINANCING FOR SMEs SECTOR

Seeking the sources of financing of planned and implemented investments is an expensive action, requiring engagement of high financial capital. The expenditures which are connected with financing of particular phases and components of the investment task may be financed from two main basic sources - own and external capital (Mina, Lahr, Hughes, 2013). Within the framework of these two basic sources, more specific items may be indicated. The table 3 presents this issue in detail.

Tab. 3: Types and access to selected sources of financing

Source of financing	Size of enterprise		
	Start-up	Small	Medium enterprise
	Access to financing sources		
Own capital	+	++	++
Self-financing, profit	-	+++	+++
Overdraft, credit cards	+	+++	+++
Shareholders, partners, suppliers of	++	+++	+++
Subsidies, public grants, support funds	+	++	++
Bank credits	-	++	+++
Non-banking loans	+++	+++	+++
Loan funds	++	++	++
Leasing	-	+++	+++
Franchising	-	++	++
Bonds	-	+	+
Trade credit	-	+++	+++
Factoring	-	++	++
Venture capital funds	+	++	+++
Business Angels, private capital	-	++	++

Description: - unavailable source, + hardly, ++ semi available source +++ easily available source

Source: own processing based on A. Skowronek -Mielczarek. Small and Medium Enterprises. Financing/Sources Małe i średnie przedsiębiorstwa. Źródła finansowania/, C.H.BECK, Warszawa 2008, pp.10

Easily available sources for enterprises are usually own capital, non-banking loans, loan funds. Internal sources of financing occur when the business creates profits. SMEs must therefore obtain external funding sources. In the European system, the dominating sources of the external financing are credits granted by banks (Balcerzak, 2009, Grzebyk, 2004). The role of the banks and the banking products offered results from the regional determinants, existing social and economic relations, habits and traditions. What is characteristic, entrepreneurs of EU-28 states more often turn to credit in a current account for financing operational needs and maintaining financial liquidity. It is typical a short term financing. The similar tendency is confirmed in the scope of using credits and loans of the period more than three years in long term transactions.

Tab. 4: The use of bank credit by small and medium-sized enterprises in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

Specification	EU-28	Germany	Poland	Slovakia	Czech R.	Hungary	Romania
Used in the past 6 months	13%	13%	10%	4%	12%	7%	10%
Did not use in the past 6 months	43%	46%	38%	24%	38%	24%	33%
Source of financing not relevant to my firm	41%	40%	33%	71%	50%	67%	55%
Others	2%	1%	18%	1%	0%	2%	1%

Source: own calculations obtained from Analytical Report 2013, European Commission, Brussels 2014, http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/finance/data/index_en.htm

As one can see from data presented in the table, bank credit and bank loans are used by nearly 13% of enterprises in European countries (EU-28). This means that every eighth entrepreneur is engaged in this kind of financing. This result is not too optimistic. The financial crisis affects the European area and still has significant impact on the behavior in the field of finance. A similar level of interest in credit and loans in EU- 28 countries we see among companies from Germany, then among the group entrepreneurs from the Czech Republic (12%). Poland and Romania show similar model like German economy, where the level of interesting us bank loans is about 10%. Completely low debt level was diagnosed in Slovakia (4%). This short trend - up to 6 months shows that bank loan is not so popular source of funding. During the crisis, commercial banks lost confidence at all. Also entrepreneurs, including decision-making related to bank loans showed less interest in their acquisition. The phenomenon is the opinions of entrepreneurs which do not use this form in the past 6 months (43% in the EU-28) and for which this source is not relevant.

The same opinions were expressed by a similar level of firms - 41%. Hungarian businessmen in comparison with the Central Eastern countries were less interested in using the loans. More than 67% of them confirmed that this source of funding is not relevant for companies. Poland, as you can see from the list, compared with Slovakia, Czech Republic, Hungary and Romania is the most satisfied with credit. Almost every third Polish businessman says that the bank credits used for the development are a good form of financing (compare Poland-Germany, 33% versus 40%). Against the background of the respondents most states are not interested in developing business operated by a bank loan, especially in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, then Romania. In Slovakia up to 71% of the surveyed entrepreneurs do not use the services of the bank's debt financing because of not adequate to their expectations.

The most important reasons are not using bank loans for researched enterprises presented in table 5.

Tab. 5: The most important reasons for not using bank loans in %

Specification	EU-28	Germany	Poland	Slovakia	Czech R	Hungary	Romania
Insufficient collateral or guarantee	5	4	5	6	4	14	8
Interest rates or price too high	11	5	18	20	8	14	34
Reduced control over the enterprise	1	1	3	1	1	2	0
No bank loans are available	6	3	4	3	3	3	3
Too much paperwork is involved	4	5	9	4	4	4	9
Don't need this type of financing	67	78	57	53	74	52	40
other	5	3	4	12	4	9	5

Source: own calculations carried out on basis of data "2014 SMEs Access to Finance survey Analytical Report, Commission EU 2015

It seems interesting why different analyzed countries have different approach attitudes to loans. During observation in the long time constant opinion, most of European enterprises are totally not interested in external financing (European Central Bank Report, 2011). More than 67% companies don't need this type of financing, from 40% in Romania to 78% in Poland. This means that credits are not more attractive for most of them. The second reason for reducing credit at portfolio are highest interest rates and cost of this capital - average 11%. Those determinants are so important for enterprises which conducted own business especially

in Romania -34%. For Polish and Slovakian enterprises a limited access to loans is also an important reason. Nearly one fifth of the companies showed that cost of bank credit and interest rate are big burden for finance of companies - in Poland with level 18 % and in Slovakia with level 20 %. Good financial conditions are offered by banks from Germany and the Czech Republic - 5 % to 8%. Hungarian enterprises expressed mostly other determinants including insufficient collateral and guarantee. On the other side Romania enterprises also highlight this problem, as well as, that the cost involves a great deal of bureaucracy with preparing correct documents. For these nationalities the cost of capital of credit is too high, when taken together with the cost of collateral and guarantee. In surveyed countries different determinants like reduced control over the enterprise, difficult access to bank loans are their available, too much paperwork which is involved in the process have less significances. These factors are not important at all.

Tab. 6: Access to debt finance. Scope and form of external sources use, without bank credit (%)

Date/Specification	EU-28	Germany	Poland	Slovak R.	Czech R.	Hungary	Romania
Equity capital	3	4	0	3	0	0	2
Leasing	29	38	16	29	24	19	22
Factoring	6	2	8	2	5	3	4
Grants or subsidies	9	11	9	3	10	8	4
Trade credit	9	3	15	3	4	3	9
Others	4	4	2	3	4	4	5

Source: own processing based on SME Access to finance Executive Summary, European Commission, Brussels, 2014

If analyses, in the last period showed that small and medium enterprises in the region of Central and Eastern Europe are not open for financing by loans and bank credit, it seems interesting to recognize other forms. Question - problem was if alternative forms of financing are used by the companies. Access to debt financing and other possibilities for financial development is an essence, clue to solution and recommendation for practice. Table 6 presents access to external sources of capital for the chosen countries. The scope of using external sources of capital, without credit show that the most popular form of financing is leasing. Leasing is used in EU-28 by 29% enterprises. It is a good score for all countries. Leasing is more attractive in Germany. It is used by nearly 38% of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs from Slovakia also are very active in the use of leasing. We can see clearly that they went away from bank financing and went back to alternative methods of financing. The average level of using this form for EU-28 has the same level in Romania and the Czech Republic. In these countries the degree of use of leasing is also high (proper 22%, 24%), which confirms their innovation and openness to modern forms of alternative financing. Strangely Poland in this area has acquired average rates. It is only 16% of entrepreneurs, which means one in eight. Polish entrepreneurs declare medium interest in this form of financing. Polish economy in this area has a lot of catching up to do. Another modern form of capital in central and east part of Europe indicate smaller using. If we consider grants and public subsidies we must express that they have similar indications like trade credit. Grants and public subsidies are mostly used by German (11%) Polish (9%) and the Czech (10%) companies. On the other hand, Poland and Romania are most interested in trade credit. As we can see, the Polish economy is more based on all forms of financing in current financing.

CONCLUSIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

The analysis comprised of indicators based on the take-up of different sources of debt finance in small and medium enterprises in Central - Eastern countries in European Union. Based on the take-up of different sources of debt finance, SME perceptions of loan finance

and actual data on interest rates we observe regional changes. Analyses were benchmark to reaction for all European communities EU-28.

Among member states countries have seen their relative performance on open for non-banking source of financing. Czech Republic and Germany represent the strongest performing countries. Whereas Slovakia and Romania have the least favourable environment for debt finance. Polish economy is a middle range focused in proportion to banking and non-banking form of capital. Access to finance is considered a pressing issue by a very large proportion of SMEs in transition economy in Central-East countries.

Analyzing the sources of gaining external capital it shall be emphasized the growing role of non-exchange market in which there is a capital market, specially addressed to small and medium enterprises. This form of capital may include developing enterprises among attractive investment projects. This form is in the preliminary phase of development in countries such as Slovakia, Czech Republic.

The dynamic development of small and medium enterprises and the growth of their effectiveness in European countries require the expansion of forms and instruments of financial support, not only the traditional but also modern and innovative ones. It is a long term action. Disparities exist in levels of development between countries. United Europe will strive to achieve situations, where differences in levels of development will be minimized. Leasing constitutes the basic form of external financing for the sector of small and medium entrepreneurship (Germany, Slovakia, Czech Republic). In turn, factoring is gaining most popularity in Poland. In the European financing system and in Poland, a dominating source of external financing are still credits granted by commercial banks. The strong position of banks in Central and Eastern Europe results from the regional determinants coming from the social and economic relations, habits and tradition. In the context of existing similarities and tendencies as well as attitudes in the financial market of the majority of European countries, it is essential to seek alternative forms of financial support for small and medium enterprises, in order to maintain the balance of the system. This problem gets a particular meaning, especially in the situation lasting of world financial crisis. Further development of the small and medium enterprises sector in European markets require searching for new possibilities of access to external capital i.e. franchise, venture capital and other, regarding the specificity of this sector as well as limiting legal administration barriers.

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NEW APPROACHES TO THE INTEGRATION OF MARKETING COMMUNICATION TOOLS

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to comment on practical aspects of the idea of integrated marketing communications (IMC). As an introduction the different interpretations of integrated marketing communications are presented. Then both the advantages and disadvantages of IMC are discussed. The next part is a review of different IMC models. Finally, the author proposes some alternative methodological bases for creating and executing IMC programmes in a company.

Key words: Integrated marketing communication. Communication matrix. Corporate strategy. Hierarchy of effects models.

JEL: M31, M37

INTRODUCTION

The reason to launch the topic was an observation of a paradox regarding the concept of Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC). On one side there was a big popularity of the idea of IMC witnessed and on the other – weak foundations of the idea. The mentioned popularity is not only seen in growing wave of literature on the topic but also in the practice of companies. According to Association of National Advertisers ANA, 74 % of companies in the USA use IMC for most of their brands. Universities have introduced special courses on IMC, and special postgraduate studies are offered. On the other side the very IMC seems to be more a set of recommendations than a practical instrument. The aim of this paper is to comment on practicability of IMC and to propose some ways of improving the concept.

1. ORIGINS OF IMC

In fact, it is impossible to trace the real beginning of IMC as a practice. The idea to harmonize some promotional effort could occur anytime to any people involved in promotion. Some believe that it was famous Leo Burnett – one of the most famous experts on advertising and creator of one of the biggest advertising agencies, Leo Burnett Company – who introduced the idea of IMC at the conference of ANA, about sixty years ago. Some think that it was Keith Reinhart, the chairman of American Association of Advertising Agencies (AAAA), who contacted Don E. Schultz, professor of Northwestern University, and as a result in 1989 the first research programme on IMC was founded by AAAA and American Advertising Association (AAF). In 1993, the first conceptual proposals regarding IMC were published in 1993 by Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (Schultz, D., 1993).

In my opinion however, it was the idea of marketing mix as a system that has given directly the foundation to IMC. One of fundamental aspects of the marketing concept has become an assumption about interrelationships between marketing mix elements. Also directly in the field on communication, well before D. E. Schultz's work, experts on promotion used to stress the role of integration of promotion. T. A. Shimp who was developing the process of promotion management, introduced the step – Integrating and coordinating promotional elements. He wrote – the promotion elements must work together if overall marketing objectives are to be accomplished. To achieve optimal effectiveness, advertising campaigns, sales promotion deals, point-of-purchase programs, and publicity releases must be integrated with one another and

coordinated with personal selling efforts. Shimp also recommended that coordination of promotion was planned and managed (Shimp, T. A., 1989, p. 24-25). Many years before Shimp, in 1975 other promotion specialist D. W. Nylén, who says that in between the advertising and supporting there should be promotional elements such as point-of-sale displays, store signs and the product package. However, in doing so, he strongly stressed the impact on a consumer of the concerted action of some promotional efforts (Nylén, D. W., 1975).

2. THE SCOPE OF IMC

Beginning in early 90's the scope of IMC has distinctly evolved. First ideas of IMC looked to be very simple: coordination and consistence of messages and communication channels (one sight, one sound or one voice). As T. Yeshin says: the underlying requirement of integrated marketing communication (IMC) is to force all aspects of the communication program to deliver a single-minded and unified message to the target consumer (Yeshin, T., 1998, p. 14). Kotler, Keller, Brady, Goodman and Hansen (2009) accept the definition by AAAA based on the core of proposal by Schultz, Caywood and Wang: IMC is a concept of marketing communication planning that recognizes the added value of a comprehensive plan in order to integrate and coordinate its message and media to deliver clear and reinforcing communication (Kotler, P. et al., 2009).

More recently they stress some new aspects – the integrated approach encourages managers to work with multiple targets and enables them to achieve integration of different brands, communication messages, and functions within one company. IMC is the concept and process of strategically managing audience-focused, channel-centered, and result-driven brand communication programs over time (Kliatchko, J., 2005. p. 9).

3. REASONS TO INTEGRATE

The most obvious reason for building IMC is avoiding inconsistency of the message. L. Percy indicates that: the lack of coordinated communication planning and the delivery of a consistent message, could lead to multiple portrayals of a brand in the market. Integrated marketing communication can produce stronger message consistency and help to build brand equity and create greater sales impact (Madhavaram, S. – Badrinarayanan, V. – McDonald, R. E., 2005).

T. Brannan stresses this reason and adds some other reasons: saving on money and gaining higher efficiency through greater „penetration“ (Brannan, T., 1998, p. 11). Smith P. R. and Taylor J. (2002, p. 14) indicate gaining competitive advantage through keeping customers for life.

As fundamental benefit they stress an effect of synergy. Some believe that it is IMC that can help to include all targeted audiences and encouragement of individual one-to-one communication.

Some additional advantages of IMC are integration of employees through cohesive communication, new opportunities for agencies to offer strategic tools for clients, better interaction among companies and agencies due to the flow of more comprehensive information among them, an effect of participation due to cooperation between different company's units (Yeshin, T., 1998, p. 76).

The above advantages in part are IMC ambitions or goals, not „instant effects“. Even if IMC idea is very promising it still represents some weaknesses. Some authors see psychological barriers as main weakness within a company (Hančovská, E., 2013, p. 311) – lack of understanding, competition instead of cooperation between company's staff responsible for various communication vehicles, lack of experienced staff, difficulties in cooperating with external agencies including problems with commissioning and managing different agencies,

the company's past during which it had enjoyed less competition, and old fashioned system of budgeting of promotion. In the light of the above difficulties researchers indicate that very few companies are really successful in introducing IMC (Kotler, P. et al., 2009).

However what really matters is that the very idea of IMC has some weaknesses.

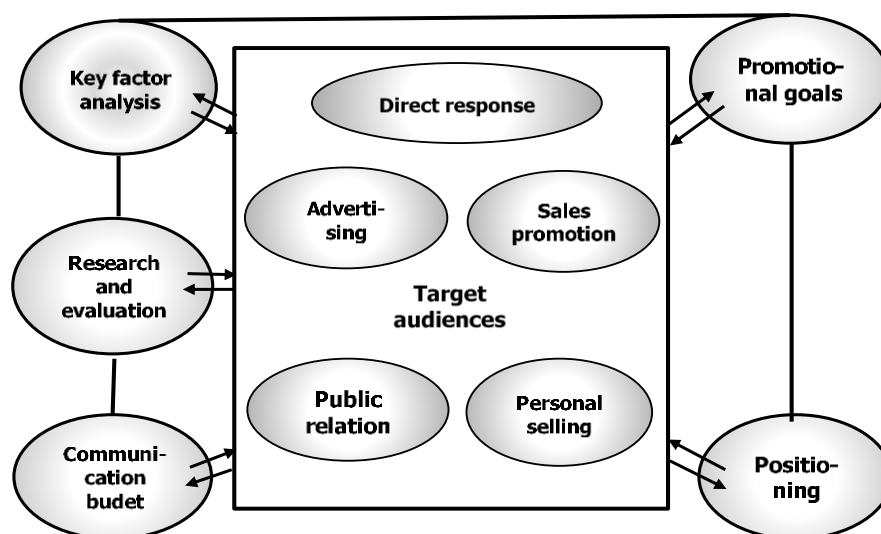
First of all, marketing communication is too complex and is inclusive of too many different flows and vehicles to be effectively channelled within the framework of IMC as it is declared in contemporary interpretation of IMC. T. Brannan indicates that IMC is not necessary in diversified conglomerate where there are few major benefits to be had from integration and each subsidiary could reasonably be treated as a brand of its own right (Brannan, T., 1998, p. 8).

IMC can restrict creativity. Different timescales of particular communicational tools can make it difficult to integrate them. It can be very difficult to find people to have real experience of all marketing communication elements. Next, the functional structure of a company („functional silos”) is expected to prevent particular managers from sharing their budget (Smith, P. R. – Taylor, J., 2002, p. 16-17). Also the very knowledge about IMC is based on research within advertising agencies which could deviate the results.

4. IMC MODELS

Very useful concepts about IMC modeling were those with simple traditional interpretation of IMC. One of models is one delivered by C. Fill (see Fig. 1).

Fig.1: The Fill's model



Source: Custom processing by Yeshin, T. (1998, p. 77)

The above model stresses integrity across all media and introduces the feedback between important elements of strategic planning process. It also expresses the idea of holistic approach to promotional tool as a contrary to tradition of using particular tools separately. As many models, it is focused on integration of a promotional campaign. Company's communication processes have bigger scope than particular campaigns.

The RABOSTIC model introduced by Pickton and Broderick (Kitchen, P. J. – Schultz, D. E., 2005, p. 14) follows the process of advertising campaign, which includes individual stages from the *Research & analysis, trough Audiences, Budget, Objectives, Strategy, Tactics,*

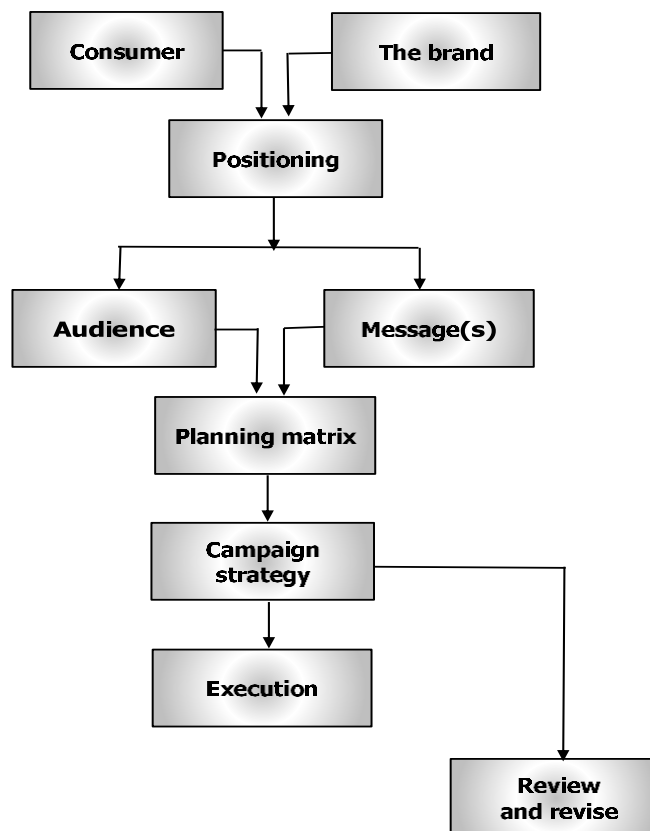
Implementation only to Control. It says nothing on how to adapt IMC within a company. Finally, it helps more to manage concrete campaigns than to run long run communication.

More detailed model is offered by T. Brannan (see Fig. 2). It stresses both consumer needs and characteristics of a brand. These two elements should lead to decisions on positioning. Positioning is assumed as a ground crucial for IMC because it provides single focus around which every aspect of communication will be constructed (Brannan, T., 1998, p. 10).

The model expresses popular tendency to associate marketing communication. As an expert A. Ries (2011, p. 2) writes with probably some exaggeration, in Advertising Age that the future marketing is expected to be substituted by branding.

What is however risky here is lack link between communication and company's strategy.

Fig.2: The Brannan's model of planning for integration



Source: Custom processing by Brannan, T. (1998, p. 10)

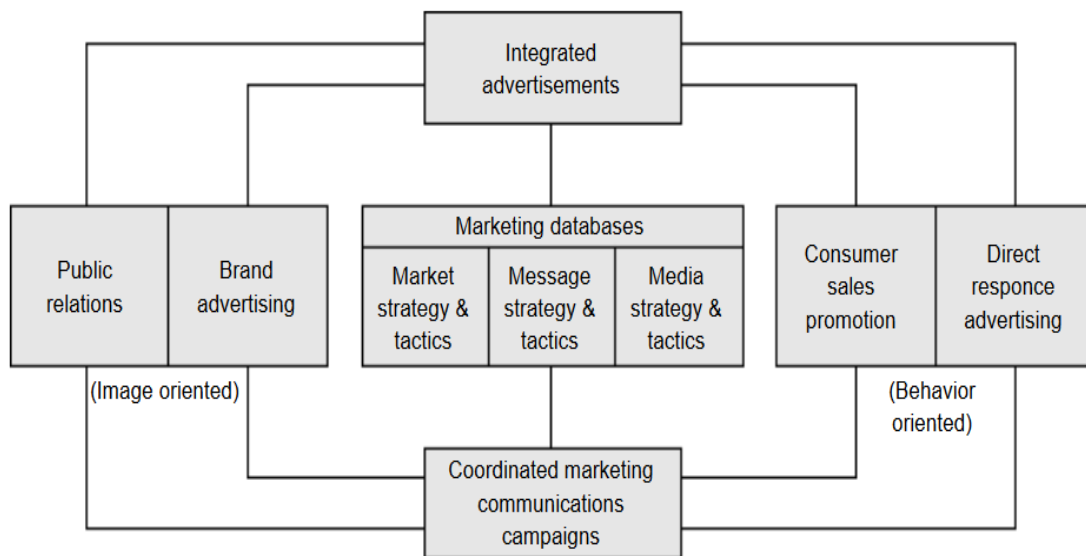
Schultz and Kitchen model (Kitchen, P. J. – Schultz, D. E., 2001, p. 108) introduces strategic aspects, which include suggestion to not only coordinate within marketing function but it also suggests the need to integrate marketing with overall company's strategy.

This includes levels:

1. Tactical coordination of marketing communication.
2. Redefining the scope of marketing communication.
3. Application of information technology.
4. Financial and strategic integration.

Particular levels of the model show natural evolution of integration of communication. What is value of a model is that it was based on research within advertising agencies. The next model is introduced by Pelps and Nowak (Fig. 3).

Fig.3: The integrated communications setting by Pelps and Nowak



Source: Custom processing by Nowak, G. J. – Pelps, J. (1994, p. 57)

An *advantage* of the model is inclusion of actual databases concerned with coordination fields: market strategies, message strategies and media strategies. Communication strategies are separated from communication tactics. The model allows for differentiating communicational tactics under the same communication strategy. This enables company to be elastic in reaching different customers.

What is a *disadvantage* of the model is that:

- it does not explain how to integrate communicational tools with communication tactics and then with communicational strategy,
- the model focuses on consumers as receivers. It does not indicate how to include other public,
- the model does not include relationships between communication and corporate strategy,
- the model is more useful for company with limited portfolio and limited geographical market; provided that a company is diversified the model would provoke the question on how to find a synergy,
- after all the model is oriented on advertising campaigns not on more complex communicational programs.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS ON HOW TO BUILD IMC

It does not seem realistic to have whole communicational flows integrated - especially in a big company. Inclusion of all people, all targets, all brands etc. makes the biggest barrier. It is more promising that concepts allowing gradual and partial integration are successfully introduced. The best examples of successful IMC are concerned mostly with individual campaigns like Barack Obama's election campaign, or Starbucks campaign, not with total communicational flows.

Empirical research leading to new concepts concerned with IMC is based mainly on surveys within advertising agencies, which can deviate the results. The very idea of IMC may oversell. Its requirements may be too challenging to be matched in practice.

It seems that so far the IMC is more a set of recommendations than a ready-to-use vehicle. All the company's communication flows have impact on IMC, however IMC managers have little authority upon all communicational flows.

PROPOSALS

Instead of all inclusive models of IMC, what can be promoted are some alternative IMC planning approaches.

The first is an *analytical approach*. The starting point is actual communication process. It would be recommended to use any analytical frameworks to search for possibilities to integrate communication (communication process models, model of consumer's reaction to advertising and promotion-hierarchy of response models, models of buying behaviour analysis of consumer value content in communication vehicles, analysis of consistency of messages, media effectiveness analysis). As a result should appear a set of proposal to correct communicational processes, including correction of company's strategic options. Next, new flow of communication should be analysed to find new possibilities to integrate. It should be noted that the above analytical frameworks are the most practicable tools of integration and the strongest elements in the IMC theory.

The second is *dissaggregative approach*. As a starting point is a company's strategy and its marketing strategy. In recent years typical strategies use to include such important elements like value for consumers. This element can in direct or non-direct way indicate goals for IMC. Other elements that are important for IMC like communication audience, products positioning also used to be stated within the framework of strategy. The next stage should be formulation of communicational strategy. It can come directly from the company's strategy. It also can be a result of transformation and adaptation of company's strategy into the needs of communication. Communication strategy should be enriched by communication related direct factors, including analysis of values expected from communication by consumers and other stakeholders. Some communicational recommendations are directly or indirectly covered by elements of strategic goals: mission, vision, business models and declarations of a company's values. In a research on global companies' strategies, essential inclusion of both marketing and communicational recommendations at corporate's level has been found.

At the *tactical level* it can take place in simulation of the use of different communicational tools and then concepts on integration and coordination should be analysed. What is potential advantage of the approach is the allowing for the inclusion of all kind of communications and of all kinds of stakeholders. What could be hypothetical advantage of the approach is allowing time coordination of communication vehicles. Long time horizon of a strategy which creates a framework for considering coordination of activities is scheduled for shorter cycles.

CONCLUSION

The above approach is realistic provided that a company has well prepared and consistent strategy. Unfortunately it cannot be taken for granted. When a company's strategy is not consistent it is difficult to expect IMC to be consistent. At operational level, because of complexity of communicational flows and because of changes in communication environment, there should be daily analysis of consistency communicational flows conducted and of potential for synergy between communicational activities. As a result both corrective actions and some proposals for revision of communicational strategy can be proposed.

In conclusion it could be stated that there is little doubt that IMC is increasingly important in the twenty-first century. Technology makes integration possible and IMC programs have already been adopted by various organizations. One of IMC's aims is to create synergy among the different marketing elements in order to achieve short and long term returns. Other benefits of an IMC approach are greater consistency among the various communication messages and functions, cost savings, easier working relations between different departments and an integrated marketing communication, better utilization of media and promotional mix of elements.

This article has focused on the concept of IMC, past research studies on IMC, barriers to its implementation, and critiques of the concept. The investigation into past research studies has proven that although practitioners have indicated that IMC is demanded from firms, little research has been carried out in relation to client firms themselves, especially in our conditions. Thus, the progress of IMC is not yet over. In fact, it has just begun.

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MOŽNOSTI PRIVÁTNÍ ZAJIŠTĚNÍ VĚZEŇSKÉHO SYSTÉMU DEKLAROVANÉ NA PŘÍPADU ČESKÉHO VĚZEŇSTVÍ

Petr Juříček

Abstrakt

Privatizace vězeňského systému je na vzestupu ve všech vyspělých zemích, avšak odborná diskuze nad tímto tématem v podmínkách českého vězeňství je zcela ojedinělá, což dokladuje značná absence vědeckých prací a výzkumných analýz. Snaha privatizovat tuto veřejnou službu, ať již ve formě komplexní privatizace, či dílčího outsourcingu služeb, sebou nese významné pozitivní a negativní aspekty. Předložený text se zabývá širším pojetím privatizace vězeňského systému, analyzuje vhodnost participace privátních partnerů do jeho klíčových oblastí, kterými jsou bezpečnost, reedukace, logistické služby, zaměstnávání vězňů a lékařská péče a výsledky deklaruje kvantitativním výzkumem simulovaným na českém vězeňském prostředí tak, aby bylo možné posoudit vhodnost outsourcingu v jeho dílčích oblastech.

Klíčové slova:

Privatizace, Vězeňský systém, Bezpečnost, Programy zacházení, Logistika, Zaměstnávání odsouzených, Lékařská péče, Rizikový faktor neúspěchu.

Abstract

The privatization of the prison system is on the rise in all developed countries, but professional discussion on this topic in terms of the Czech prison system is quite unique, which documents the significant absence of scientific work and research analysis. Efforts to assess the conditions of the Czech prison system must be based on foreign sources of expertise dealing with the issue. Only then can the possible implementation of this knowledge transfer to the conditions of the Czech prison. Efforts to privatize this public service, whether in the form of a complete privatization or partial outsourcing service carries positive and negative aspects. In the present text, we will focus on the evaluation of privatization, in a broader sense, and assess the suitability of the current conditions of the Czech sub-areas for the possible entry of private partners. I will focus on pre-defined main areas of the whole process. It means security, reeducation, logistics services, employment of prisoners and medical care. These areas represent key fragments of the Czech prison system.

Keywords

Privatization, Prison system, Security, Rehabilitation program, Logistic, Employment, Medical care, Risk factors.

JEL: H53, H83, K32

ÚVOD

Žádná z ekonomik rozvinutých států nedokáže poskytnout svému veřejnému sektoru, v rámci koncepce trvale udržitelného rozvoje, dostatek prostředků plynoucích z *interních* přerozdělovacích procesů jako jsou daně a poplatky, a to v natolik přiměřeném časovém intervalu, aby bylo možné vytvořit a poskytnout veřejné služby všem jejich spotřebitelům při optimálním splnění základních kritérií - kvality, rozsahu, množství a dostupnosti. Celý tento proces odráží slábnoucí roli státu, který není schopen i díky omezování veřejných prostředků na svůj chod, reagovat na stoupající požadavky při zajišťování veřejných služeb. Snaha o

využití spolupráce s privátními partnery se proto nyní významně dotýká i vězeňství, které je, podobně jako oblast armády či policejních sborů, založeno na bezpečnostních prioritách.

Fenomén privatizace vězeňského systému, ať již jedné její části nebo úplně, je samozřejmě reflektován v penologii a příbuzných disciplínách. Zatímco ekonomický pohled si všímá především vnějších změn v systému, odborníci z oblasti penologie se zaměřují více na dopady na penitenciární péči, což představuje reedukační činnosti vězňených osob (vzdělávání, nápravu, zaměstnání apod.) a to s nejnižšími náklady a v požadované kvalitě celého procesu (Kýr, 2006). V odborné literatuře sice již v základních obrysech byla problematika *privátních bezpečnostních služeb* hastiněna v dílčích studiích odborných časopisů (Bureš 2006, 2009, Bureš a Nedědická 2011, Kulíšek 2011) nicméně většina této literatury se zabývá pouze problematikou soukromých vojenských, či policejních společností. Oblast privátního vězeňství však, oproti anglosaským zemím, není rozpracována vůbec (Logan 1992, Howard 2002, Harding 2001, McDonald 1992, Gaes a Camp 2001).

Cílem tohoto příspěvku je posoudit využití privátních zdrojů při zajištění vězeňského systému a to prostřednictvím identifikace rizikových faktorů, které mají vliv na (ne)úspěšnost implementace privátní účasti do veřejných služeb. Hovořím zde o oblasti bezpečnosti (*security*), zahrnující bezpečnost personálu i vězňených osob, reedukace (*reeducation*), která představuje odbornou činnost personálu s vězňenými osobami, logistických služeb (*logistic*), zaměstnanosti (*employment*) a kvalitní lékařské péči (*medical care*).

1. PRIVATIZACE SLUŽEB BEZPEČNOSTNÍ POVAHY

Fenomén *privatizace bezpečnosti* je vždy nutno vnímat v místním kontextu, neboť příčiny i implikace využití soukromých aktérů v bezpečnostní oblasti se mnohdy výrazně liší stát od státu. Pokud bychom se přesto pokusili o výčet příčin privatizace bezpečnosti ve smyslu obecnější definice, jedná se o *částečný* nebo *úplný* převod vládou zajišťované funkce soukromému sektoru. Některé novější přístupy k výzkumu bezpečnosti, zejména pak tzv. *lidská bezpečnost* (*human security*), naopak poukazují na fakt, že stát je mnohdy a mnohde bohužel pro své občany spíše bezpečnostní hrozbou než garantem bezpečnosti. Lze konstatovat, že v oblasti bezpečnostních studií existuje konsensus, kde dochází k erozi role státu coby výhradního poskytovatele národní (vnitřní) a mezinárodní (vnější) bezpečnosti a norma státního monopolu na legitimní použití síly je stále častěji nahrazována úvahami o účinnosti a hospodárnosti státních bezpečnostních služeb. Již dnes mnohé západní demokracie nemají monopol na použití násilí k ochraně svých občanů. Místo toho stále více ziskem motivovaných firem přebírá roli alternativních dodavatelů bezpečnosti pro občany i státy. Národní bezpečnostní orgány sice nadále řeší nedostatky na trhu s bezpečností na úrovni jednotlivce, státu i mezinárodního systému, ale poměr mezi veřejnými a soukromými poskytovateli bezpečnosti se mění. Druhou důležitou akademickou disciplínou, která se na rozdíl od primárně mezinárodně orientovaných bezpečnostních studií zabývá téměř výhradně problematikou vnitřní bezpečnosti, je *kriminologie*. Soudobé kriminologické analýzy rovněž dokazují, že bezpečnostní sektor je stále více fragmentovaný a nejasný v důsledku neustálé interakce veřejných a soukromých aktérů. Pro pochopení těchto interakcí vzniklo několik analytických modelů známých jako *uzlové vládnutí* (*nodal governance*) a/nebo *síťové vládnutí* (*network governance*) jejichž cílem je vysvětlení rostoucího zapojení soukromých aktérů do zajišťování bezpečnosti. Jejich hlavní výhodou je zejména fakt, že jsou schopny zachytit právě onen neustále se měnící vztah mezi soukromými a veřejnými aktéry, čímž nabízejí mnohem komplexnější pohled na privatizaci bezpečnosti než ve starší literatuře často prezentovaný model úpadku státu a posilování soukromých aktérů. Ačkoli tyto nové sítě představují strukturované oblasti, uzlové uspořádání nevyjadřuje jedinou logiku. Místo předpokladu přítomnosti dominantního státu schopného usměrnění a regulace dalších bezpečnostních aktérů podle vlastní vládní agendy, nodální vládnutí připouští možnost, že ostatní aktéři či

bezpečnostní uzly mohou mít větší vliv po určitou dobu nebo ve specifickém prostředí. Produkce bezpečnosti v uzlových sítích je totiž relační a podmíněný proces (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2011). Na rozdíl od literatury z oboru mezinárodní bezpečnosti a mezinárodních vztahů, která se rovněž zabývá problematikou posunu od hierarchického modelu vlády k fragmentovanému modelu vládnutí, se však kriminologové primárně nepokoušejí najít optimální uspořádání vztahů mezi jednotlivými uzly a aktéry, nýbrž se snaží najít odpověď na otázku, proč určité uspořádání vztahů mezi aktéry vůbec vzniklo a jak ovlivňuje praxi vládnutí, jeho prostředí a samotné vztahy mezi jeho jednotlivými aktéry.

Privatizace bezpečnosti je součástí širšího procesu částečného *rozebírání* státu a současně vznikajících *globálních montáží*, které spojují národní a globální struktury. V oblasti bezpečnosti je výsledkem těchto posunů vznik toho, čemu říkáme *globální bezpečnostní montáže* – nadnárodní struktury a sítě, v níž se řada různých subjektů a norem střetává, komunikuje, spolupracuje a soutěží a vznikají tak nové instituce, postupy a formy deteritorializovaného bezpečnostního uspořádání (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2011). Je nutno zdůraznit slovo částečné v případě rozebírání státu, neboť Abrahamsenová a Williams netvrdí, že stát mizí, nýbrž že jeho konkrétní složky procházejí procesem změny, která sice některé z nich oslabuje, ale jiné jsou naopak posilovány, a to jak absolutně, tak relativně ve vztahu k dalším bezpečnostním aktérům, včetně soukromých. Privatizace bezpečnosti se proto neodehrává mimo struktury státu, naopak je zakotvena v sociálním a právním prostředí a může také zahrnovat účast prvků veřejných bezpečnostních sil (Abrahamsen a Williams, 2011). Privatizace není jen otázka převodu dříve veřejných funkcí na soukromé aktéry, nýbrž i indikátorem fundamentální re-artikulace vztahů veřejného a soukromého sektoru. Moc proto musí být umístěna v centru analýzy (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2011).

2. PRIVATIZACE VĚZEŇSKÉHO SYSTÉMU

HM Prison Service (2010) uvádí, že užívání tohoto termínu je typické především pro americké prostředí, kde je pojem *privatizace vězeňství* hluboce zakořeněn a široce používán. Tato forma zajištění vězeňských systémů, která je již dnes *běžným standardem* ve Velké Británii a v USA, pak umožňuje plnou aplikaci inovací, kde je koncesionář motivován větší mírou k inovacím i na straně ostrahy a bezpečnosti, prioritu však představuje zajištění tzv. *facility managementu*. US Bureau of Justice ve své statistice za rok 2009 uvádí, že v USA je v průměru 8 % vězněné populace umístěno v soukromých zařízeních (12,3 % tvoří federální vězni a 6,8 % vězni na úrovni státu). Ve Velké Británii se jedná o 10,4 % odsouzených a například ve Skotsku se uváděná čísla pohybují pod hranicí 20 % (HM Treasury UK 2002, HM Prison 2009, CCA 2009).

I přesto, že je nestátní charakter věznic znám po dlouhá období historie, neznamená to, že by byly spravovány výhradně na zisk orientovanými subjekty. Dle Hardinga (2001) je privatizace vězeňství, či její případná modifikace jedinečným fenoménem, který nelze pochopit jen na základě definování daného pojmu, protože je specifická tím, že se stát nevzdává odpovědnosti za vězeňský systém. Kuchta a Válková (2005) potvrzují právě Hardinga (2001), že v případě privatizace musí stát vždy zůstat autoritou, která rozhoduje o podmínkách věznění a cílech výkonu trestu, což představuje určité *přenesení odpovědnosti*, ale za předem daných podmínek. Stát se v žádném případě nezbavuje odpovědnosti za alokaci trestu (rozhodování o výši trestu, o podobě jeho výkonu), avšak může legitimně přenést odpovědnost za administraci trestu, tj. za samotné naplňování soudního rozhodnutí. (McDonald, 1992, Moyle, 2000, Harding, 2001) Logan (1992) se zabývá faktem, zda je vůbec možné považovat vymáhání práva, či trest jako takový, za *tržní statek* jako každý jiný. Podle McDonalda (1992) je otázkou, zda je možné na roli soukromého partnera při zajištění státní služby pohlížet jako na *státního aktéra*, který je nucen plnit všechny ústavní podmínky stejně jako veřejný sektor. Právě delegování donucovací pravomoci ze státních do soukromých rukou řadit do negativních faktorů, stejně tak jako možnost upřednostňování zisku kontraktora před veřejným zájmem

(Logan, 1990). Základním argumentem proponentů (Bowery 1999, Wooldridge 2006, Park 2000) soukromých věznic je tvrzení, že tržní mechanismy vnesou do systému větší efektivitu a přinesou úsporu finančních prostředků státem do systému vkládaných. Oponenti (Schwartz - Nurge 2004, Roth 2004, Sieberg 2005, Ntsobi 2005, Lafer 1999) soukromých vězení, ať už jde o politické strany či nikoliv, odmítají, že by soukromé věznice přinášely významnější úspory a poukazují na možná rizika zhoršení bezpečnosti a kvalitu procesu v komplexní rovině.

V literatuře lze nalézt mnoho různých typologií a klasifikací, která jsou založeny na vybraných službách vězeňství poskytovaných privátním provozovatelem.

Tab. 1: Typologie privatizace dle Howarda

Typologie	Charakteristika
Soukromé financování a konstrukce	Využití soukromých zdrojů k vybudování věznice. Správa vedená státem, resp. státní vězeňskou službou. Konkrakt v podobě pronájmu, leasingové smlouvy, popř. stát platí měsíčně určitou částku za využívání zařízení. Přechod zařízení po skončení smlouvy do držení státu.
Soukromý průmysl	Využívání vězňů k práci soukromými firmami.
Poskytování dílčích privátních služeb	Zajištění např. stravování, lékařské péče a dalších spíše logistických činností soukromým institucím.
Kompletní zajištění soukromými subjekty	Zajištění celkového chodu věznice, včetně ostrahy a nápravného působení, v podobě realizovaných programů pro odsouzené.

Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování na základě Johna Howarda, 2002

Dalším možným dělením je rozdělení dle *formy transferu*, tedy zda došlo pouze k *částečnému* převodu na soukromý sektor, či k *úplné* privatizaci a dále dle struktury kontraktora, tedy zda se jedná o společnost orientovanou na zisk nebo zda se jedná o privatizaci prostřednictvím neziskové sféry.

Tab. 2: Možnosti privatizace vzhledem k charakteru společnosti

Podoba soukromého subjektu	Míra privatizace	
	Částečný transfer	Úplná privatizace
Nezisková organizace	I	II
Obchodní společnost	III	IV

Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování na základě Austina a Coventry, 2001

I přesto, jak udává Amstronng (2002), že jsou neziskové organizace typické svojí unikátní dynamikou fungování, a proto budeme preferovat, ve smyslu privatizace, vztah *stát a zisková organizace*.

3. PRIVÁTNÍ ÚČAST PŘI ZAJIŠTĚNÍ VĚZEŇSKÝCH SLUŽEB

S ekonomii bezpečnostní studia sdílí na privatizaci celospolečenský pohled, avšak liší se základní výzkumnou otázkou. Zatímco ekonomie se táže po efektivitě této politiky, bezpečnostní studia se zaměřují na dopady na bezpečnost a jejich dalších podpůrných služeb. Omezit šířku záběru výzkumu pouze na jeden z popsaných směrů je však v praxi obtížné. Například ekonom musí do analýzy přínosů a nákladů zahrnout také bezpečnostní dopady, naopak bezpečnostní studia musí vždy vycházet z reálných finančních nákladů na implementaci bezpečnostní politiky. Součástí rozhodovací fáze je i rozhodnutí, zda bude privatizace vězeňského systému *úplná* nebo *částečná* (Harding, 2001, Nathan, 2005), takže se do praxe dostávají různorodé varianty participace privátních subjektů (Tab. 3).

Tab. 3: Služby realizované soukromými společnostmi ve vězenství

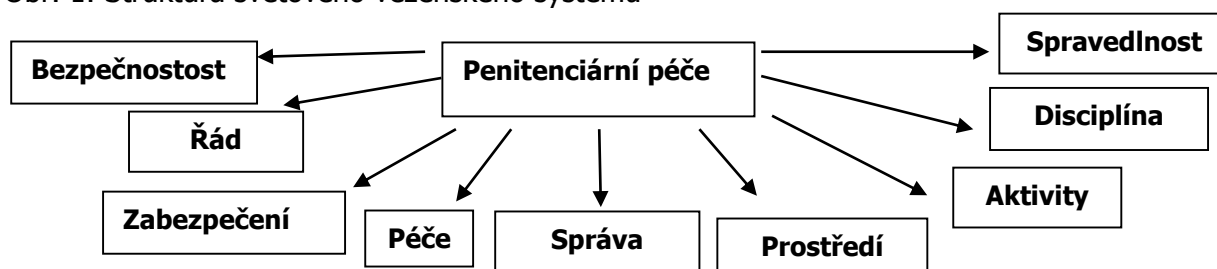
	ARA	CCA	G4S	GEP	MTC	PRI	SEG	SOD	GEO	TRC
Prádelny				×						
Správa vozového parku				×						
Eskorty		×	×	×	×		×	×	×	×
Technická správa věznice	×	×	×	×	×		×	×	×	
Výstavba věznic		×	×	×	×		×	×	×	
Konzultace a výcvik		×	×	×	×		×	×	×	
Všeobecné lékařské služby		×	×		×	×	×	×	×	
Lékařské převozy						×				
Psychiatrická terapie						×			×	
Adiktologie (IDTS)						×				
Gastronomické služby	×	×	×		×		×	×	×	
Vzdělávací programy		×	×		×		×	×	×	
Reintegrační programy		×	×		×		×	×	×	
Obsluha (řízení) věznice		×	×		×		×	×	×	

Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování na základě Krále (2013)

Poznámky: ARA = Aramark, CCA = Corrections Corporation of America, G4S = G4S, GEP = GEPSA, MTC = Management & Training Corporation, PRI = Primecare – Forensic Medical Services, SEG = Serco Group, SOD = Sodexo, GEO = The GEO Group, Inc., TRC = TransCor.

Charles Logan (1992) při srovnávání státních a soukromých věznic navrhuje metodu tzv. *rámcu pro měření kvality*. Rámec se zakládá na matematicky odvozené proměnné označované jako index kvality věznice (*prison index quality*), která reflektuje následující dimenze správy zařízení (Obr. 1).

Obr. 1: Struktura světového vězeňského systému



Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování na základě Logana, 1992

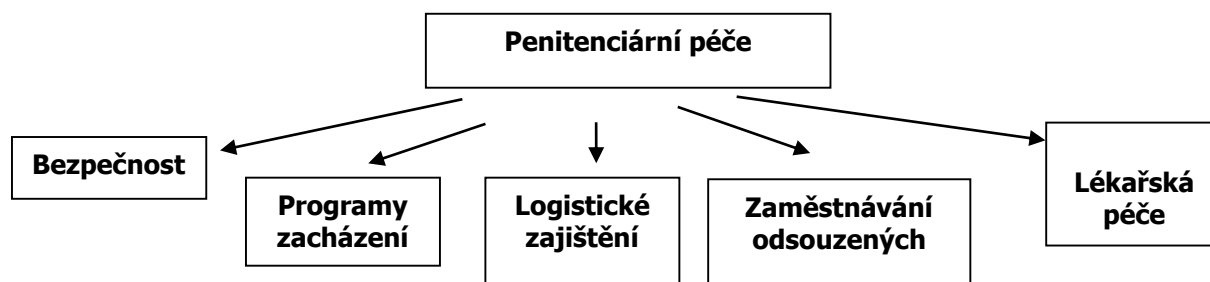
Nejfrekventovanějším pozitivním (pro zastávce) a negativním (pro odpůrce) kritériem pro hodnocení privatizace vězeňství je diskuze o ekonomické efektivitě. Domnívám se však, že vhodnějším označením je *potenciální úspora* plynoucí z privatizace. Z hlediska ekonomických pozic totiž existují dvě základní motivace pro privatizaci vězeňství, které jsou principiálně protichůdné. Privatizace coby řešení *stabilizace* vězeňského systému s cílem diverzifikace kapacit versus *snaha o finanční úsporu* v dané rozpočtové kapitole veřejných financí.

4. MOŽNOST PRIVÁTNÍ ÚČASTI NA DEMONSTRATIVNÍM MODELU ČESKÉHO VĚZEŇSTVÍ

Základním požadavkem na produkci garantovaných veřejných služeb je poskytovat takové služby, které splňují definované kvalitativní parametry a jsou dostupné těm (všem, bez ohledu na jejich příjmovou situaci), pro které jsou určeny. Při využití způsobu poskytování je tedy rozhodující ošetření rizika *dostupnosti*, zejména v případě pokud je daná služba poskytována externí formou, prostřednictvím vhodné alokace tohoto rizika a zajištění *kontroly* nad takovým způsobem poskytování. Zatímco u výrobků lze díky jejich hmotné povaze objektivní parametry kvality specifikovat, kvalita služeb je subjektivním konceptem, jehož konkrétní obsah je determinovaný očekáváními a potřebami zákazníka ve vztahu k dané službě (Lukášová, 2009). Jinými slovy, tam kde nelze kvalitu výstupu měřit pomocí technických parametrů, či hodnotit na základě předem definovaných standardů, je pro poskytovatele služby zásadní potřeba a přání jejího spotřebitele. Partnerství veřejného a soukromého sektoru vyžaduje, aby výsledný ekonomický přínos (užitná hodnota) spolupráce subjektů těchto sektorů byl vyšší než ekonomický přínos při poskytování služby veřejným sektorem. Porovnávají se celkové *kvantitativní* i *kvalitativní* hodnoty, které veřejný sektor získává nejen vzhledem k vynaloženým nákladům při zajištění služby z vlastních zdrojů, ale přičítá se i hodnota rizik, za kterou soukromý sektor převzal odpovědnost. K odpovědnostem se ovšem přímo úměrně vážou rizika, resp. rizikové faktory.

Zjednodušený model struktury vězeňství lze deklarovat na hlavních pilířích systému zahrnující danou oblast (Obr. 2).

Obr. 2: Struktura českého vězeňského systému



Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování

Předložená analýza je založena na analýze rizikových faktorů, které charakterizují míru ohrožení vstupu soukromého partnera do dané oblasti formou míry pravděpodobnosti selhání účasti na privátním zajištění (Rov. 1). Do analýzy proto zahrneme faktor „B“ (*bezpečnost*), která představuje vnitřní (dynamickou) a vnější bezpečnost, tedy technologická zařízení a lidských faktor podílející se na zajištění bezpečnosti. Faktor „PZ“ (*programy zacházení*), které představují soubor speciálně výchovných aktivit realizovaných s odsouzenými, dílčí pracovní aktivity a komunitní setkání. Faktor „LOG“ (*logistické služby*), zahrnující stravování, vystrojování, úklid společných prostor. Faktor „Z“ (*zaměstnávání*) využívající pracovní potenciál vězňů při pracovních činnostech a faktor „LP“ (*lékařská péče*), tedy zajištění všeobecné lékařské péče

Rov. 1: Míra pravděpodobnosti rizika selhání projektu v dané oblasti

$$U_x = f_1 * U_{x1} + f_2 * U_{x2} + f_3 * U_{x3} + f_4 * U_{x4} + f_5 * U_{x5} \quad (1)$$

Legenda:

Ux1 – bezpečnost (B), Ux2 – programy zacházení (PZ), Ux3 – logistika (LOG), Ux4 – zaměstnávání (Z)
Ux5 – lékařská péče (LP).

$Ux = \langle 0,1 \rangle$; čím více se bude blížit 1, tím větší bude pravděpodobnost, že k selhání projektu dojde.

Faktory $\{f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4, f_5\}$ f = váhy jednotlivých faktorů, vypočteny z výsledků výzkumu. Faktory představují procentuální vyjádření pravděpodobnosti rizika selhání projektu v dané oblasti U1 – U5.

Výzkumný vzorek představují respondenti 25 českých věznic, kteří se byli ochotni na výzkumu podílet. U zaměstnanců, pracujících v přímém kontaktu s vězňnými, bylo realizováno dotazníkové šetření, které mělo identifikovat rizikové faktory selhání v případě zajištění privátním sektorem, kdy výsledky byly následně zpracovány kvantitativní metodou, a výpočtem procentuální míry selhání, resp. tzv. *koeficientem selhání* (Tab. 4). Při sběru získaných dat bylo zjištěno, že návratnost dotazníkových šetření se pohybuje těsně pod hranicí 70%, což lze považovat za validní vzorek.

Tab 4: Přehled identifikovaných rizikových faktorů v dílčích oblastech

Věznice	B	PZ	LOG	Z	LP	Počet faktoru*	Počet respondentů**	Četnost faktoru***
Bělušice	24	14	11	21	22	92	49	1,83
Břeclav	25	18	12	14	21	90	42	2,14
Drahonice	24	19	4	18	19	84	44	2,00
Heřmanice	12	25	13	10	23	83	42	1,97
Horní Slavkov	25	23	5	20	19	92	35	2,62
Jiřice	27	24	15	16	14	96	36	2,66
Karviná	26	22	18	16	14	96	38	2,52
Kuřim	28	18	11	25	15	97	39	2,48
Kynšperk	26	24	10	14	16	90	42	2,14
Mírov	20	21	14	14	24	93	46	2,02
Nové Sedlo	24	15	10	19	10	78	41	1,90
Odolov	22	4	9	5	18	58	40	1,45
Opava	19	18	12	8	24	81	44	1,84
Oráčov	26	17	7	15	13	78	38	2,05
Ostrov	18	10	14	11	25	78	34	2,29
Pardubice	23	18	9	16	22	88	39	2,25
Příbram	29	4	11	17	6	67	38	1,76
Rapotice	24	11	10	5	28	78	41	1,90
Rýnovice	22	9	13	14	15	73	40	1,82
Stráž pod Ralskem	22	14	14	10	11	71	42	1,69
Světlá nad Sázavou	22	22	12	17	19	92	49	1,87
Valdice	26	14	11	4	22	77	47	1,63
Vinařice	28	15	8	12	22	85	42	2,02
Všehrady	29	17	9	13	23	91	46	1,97
Znojmo	27	11	17	12	22	89	41	2,17
Celkem	598	407	279	346	467	2097	1035	2,02

Zdroj: Autor ze statistických dat provedeného výzkumu.

Poznámka: *Udává počet zaznamenaných faktorů, které vyjadřují, že danou oblast je vhodné přetransformovat do privátní formy. **Uvádí počet respondentů, kteří se vyjádřili v dotazníkovém šetření v dané organizační jednotce. *** Udává četnost faktoru vzhledem k počtu respondentů.

Je patrné, že žádná zkoumaná oblast nevykázala úplnou absenci některého rizikového faktoru. Jinými slovy, každý systém zahrnoval v sobě více než jeden faktor, který ovlivňoval zajištění dané služby. Stejně tak není vždy v přímém poměru počet identifikovaných faktorů směrem k celkovému počtu.

4.1 Míra rizika vstupu privátního subjektu vzhledem k vnější bezpečnosti

Kvalifikované srovnání jednotlivých oblastí vzhledem k rizikovosti je nutné provést vzhledem k diferenciaci odsouzených, tedy k tzv. vnější diferenciaci odpovídající bezpečnostním podmínkám, tj. vzhledem kategorie vězňů zařazených do věznice s dohledem, dozorem, ostrahou a zvýšenou ostrahou (§ 4 zákona č. 169/1999Sb. o výkonu trestu odnětí svobody). Zastoupení uvedených faktorů bylo identifikováno na základě informací, které vyplývají z jednotlivých dotazníkových šetření. Nutné je však uvést, že instruktáže ke sběru dat byly, vzhledem k časovým možnostem výzkumu, provedeny elektronickou formou, tudíž některé výstupy mohou být ovlivněny nedostatečným, či odlišným pochopením předloženého zadání.

Tab. 5: Zastoupení sledovaných faktorů vzhledem ke kategorizaci cílových skupin

	Bezpečnost	Programy zacházení	Logistika	Zaměstnanost	Lékařská péče	Počet faktorů	Počet respondentů	Četnost faktoru
Dohled	96	86	36	62	89	372	202	1,84
Dozor	169	125	74	92	134	594	250	2,38
Ostraha	246	151	136	135	169	956	456	2,09
Zvýšená ostraha	87	45	33	57	75	175	127	1,37
Celkem	598	407	279	346	467	2097	1035	2,02

Zdroj: Autor na základě statistických dat provedeného výzkumu.

Z předložených výsledků vyplývá, že nejvyšší zastoupení jednotlivých faktorů vzhledem k vybraným kategoriím vězňů je u kategorie *dozor*, který představuje koeficient 2,38 faktoru na respondenta. Nejnižší zastoupení faktorů pro všechny zkoumané oblasti je pak kategorie *zvýšené ostrahy*, který představuje koeficient 1,37. Výsledky lze tedy interpretovat tak, že kategorie *dohledu* (1,48) a *zvýšené ostrahy* (1,37) lze považovat za nejméně rizikové pro transformaci na privátní zajištění, naproti tomu typ věznice s *ostrahou* (2,09) a s *dozorem* (2,38) se jedná o nejrizikovější (Tab. 6).

Tab. 6: Zastoupení sledovaného faktoru

1. Charakteristika	Bezpečnost		Programy zacházení		Logistika		Zaměstnávání		Lékařská péče	
	%PR	%PF	%PR	%PF	%PR	%PF	%PR	%PF	%PR	%PF
2. Dohled	47,5	25,8	30,6	16,6	17,8	9,6	42,5	23,1	44,1	23,9
Dozor	67,6	28,4	36,8	15,4	29,6	12,4	50,0	21,1	53,6	22,5
3. Ostraha	53,9	25,7	29,6	14,1	29,8	14,2	33,1	15,7	37,6	17,6
Zvýšená ostraha	68,5	49,7	44,8	32,5	25,9	32,5	35,4	25,7	59,1	42,8
Celkem	57,7	28,5	33,4	16,4	26,9	13,3	39,3	19,4	45,1	22,2

Zdroj: autor, dle analýzy jednotlivých studií

Legenda: % PR zahrnuje procentuální existence uvedeného faktoru v dané oblasti z celkového počtu zjištění. % PF představuje, kolik procent z celkového počtu identifikovaných faktorů tvořil sledovaný faktor v rámci jednotlivých oblastí.

Nejméně rizikovou oblastí ve věznici s *dohledem* je oblast logistiky (9,6 %), následuje oblast programů zacházení (16,6 %), pak zaměstnávání (23,1 %), lékařská péče (23,9 %)

a nejrizikovější je oblast bezpečnosti (25,8 %). U kategorie *dozor* je nejméně riziková oblast také logistika (12,4 %), následují programy zacházení (15,4 %), zaměstnávání (21,1 %), lékařská péče (22,5 %) a nejrizikovější oblastí je opět bezpečnost (28,4 %). U kategorie *ostraha* je nejméně riziková oblast programů zacházení (14,1 %), následuje logistika (14,2 %), zaměstnávání (15,7 %), lékařská péče (17,6 %) a nejrizikovější oblastí je opět bezpečnost (25,7 %). Poslední vyhodnocenou je kategorie *zvýšené ostraha*, kde nejrizikovější je oblast zaměstnávání (25,7 %), programy zacházení a logistika mají stejný koeficient rizikovosti (32,5 %), dále lékařská péče (42,8 %) a bezpečnost (49,7 %).

Nejrizikovější oblastí komplexně je *bezpečnost* (49,7 %) u cílové skupiny *ostraha* a nejméně rizikovou oblastí je oblast *logistiky* (9,6 %) u odsouzených v *dohledu* (Tab. 6).

Rov. 2: Míra pravděpodobnosti selhání u dílčích oblastí dle dat výzkumu

$$U_x = 0,285 * B + 0,164 * PZ + 0,133 * LOG + 0,194 * Z + 0,222 * LP$$

B, PZ, LOG, Z, LP $\in \{0,1\}$ kde 0 = nepřítomnost faktoru, 1 = přítomnost faktoru
 $f_B, f_{PZ}, f_{LOG}, f_Z, f_{LP} = \{0,285, 0,164, 0,133, 0,194, 0,222\}$, váhy jednotlivých faktorů odpovídají zaokrouhleným hodnotám uvedeným v tabulce 6, vyjadřující podíl z celkového počtu.

Dle pravděpodobnosti selhání projektů u jednotlivých oblastí lze shrnout tyto komplexní závěry (Rov. 2). Nejnižší váhu vykazuje oblast logistiky (LOG - 13%), druhou pozici zaujímají programy zacházení (PZ - 16%) a třetí je zaměstnávání (Z - 19%), čtvrtou je lékařská péče (LP - 22%) a nejvyšší rizikovost v celkovém kontextu vykazuje oblast bezpečnosti (B - 28%). Váhy sledovaných faktorů podléhají určitým omezením a nelze je považovat za obecně platné. Je nutné zdůraznit, že do uvedeného výzkumu jsou promítnuty různé odlišnosti, které samotné výsledky ovlivnily. I když lze výzkumný vzorek považovat za dostatečně veliký, délka praxe, zkušenosti, neznalost komplexního systému, či nedostatečné pochopení instruktáže respondentů může mít vliv na jednotlivá vyhodnocení. Výsledky ukazují, že nevhodnějším typem pro případné zapojení privátního provozovatele do současného vězeňství je oblast *logistických služeb*, tedy služby spojené se stravováním, vystrojováním či další materiální podpory, následují *programy zacházení* a *zaměstnávání*.

ZÁVĚR

Privatizace bezpečnosti obecně může znamenat ohrožení státního *monopolu na násilí*. Tento monopol je jedním ze základních kamenů moderní koncepce státu, bez jehož uchování si lze stát v tomto slova smyslu jen obtížně představit, poněvadž pak může docházet k závažnému ohrožení životních zájmů státu.

V případě úvah o privatizaci vězeňství je důležitým faktorem kontrolní mechanismus, kterým bude případný soukromý kontraktor pod *dohledem* státu. Toto je důležité pro hodnocení občana, který se bude vždy obracet na stát, jako na garanta výkonu trestu odnětí svobody. Občan musí být podroben pouze autoritě státních orgánů, nikoli soukromým společnostem.

Umožnit vstup privátním provozovatelům do českého vězeňství je podobně jako v ostatních zemích, možné. Struktura současného systému je tvořena oblastí bezpečnosti, reedukace (programy zacházení), zaměstnávání, logistickými službami a zajištěním kvalitní lékařské péče. Ne všechny uvedené oblasti ale vykazují odpovídající podmínky, resp. nelze zaručit, že privátní forma zajištění bude automaticky přínosem, jak v kvalitě, tak ve finanční efektivitě. Dle výsledků předloženého výzkumu je patrné, že lze považovat oblast logistiky za nejpříjemnější pro tzv. *první pokus* privátní účasti na zajištění výkonu trestu odnětí svobody, i když zdůrazňují, že hlavní přínos privatizačních impulsů představuje především vytvoření vhodného soutěživého

prostředí, které nese znaky volného trhu, ve kterém má své místo tvorba ceny za služby, ať již veřejné či komerční.

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