Univerzitet za poslovne studije Banja Luka
University of Business Studies Banja Luka

ISSN: 2232-8157
ISSN: 2490-3140 (Online)
UDK 005.96

POSLOVNE STUDIJE
BUSINESS STUDIES

ČASOPIS ZA POSLOVNU TEORIJU I PRAKSU

Godina 15, Broj 29-30

Banja Luka, 2023.

POSLOVNE STUDIJE / BUSINESS STUDIES

ČASOPIS ZA POSLOVNU TEORIJU I PRAKSU / JOURNAL FOR BUSINESS THEORY AND PRACTICE

Osnivač i izdavač / Founder and publisher:
Univerzitet za poslovne studije Banja Luka / University of Business Studies Banja Luka
Jovana Dučića 23a, 78000 Banja Luka
Tel. +387 51 248 300

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Štampa / Print:
Markos design & print studio

Tiraž / Circulation:
300

Časopis „Poslovne studije“ izlazi jednom godišnje i registrovan je u bibliografskoj bazi podataka Online Public Access Catalog (OPAC).
Journal *Business Studies* is published annually and it is registered in the bibliographic database Online Public Access Catalog (OPAC).

Svi su radovi recenzirani u dvostrukom anonimnom recenzentskom postupku koji obuhvata eksternu i internu recenziju. Recenzenti su dužni da ukažu na moguću povredu etičkih normi u radu.
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Indexed in:

ERIH PLUS SJIFactor (SJIF) 6,946 doisrpska.nub.rs scholar.google.com road.issn.org

Časopis „Poslovne studije“ se nalazi u PRVOJ KATEGORIJI – od 30 do 40 bodova
RANG LISTE KATEGORISANIH NAUČNIH ČASOPISA U REPUBLICI SRPSKOJ
The journal “Business Studies" is placed in the FIRST CATEGORY (30 – 40 points) of THE SCIENTIFIC JOURNAL RANK LIST IN THE REPUBLIC OF SRPSKA

Časopis u punom tekstu dostupan je na www.poslovnestudije.com
Full-text available free of charge at www.poslovnestudije.com/?lang=en

Ministarstvo prosvjete i kulture Republike Srpske, rješenjem broj 07.030-611-01-6/09 od 13.08.2009. godine, izvršilo je upis časopisa „Poslovne studije“ u Registar javnih glasila pod rednim brojem 578.
The journal “Business Studies“ is entered into The Public Media Register as 578 by The Ministry of Education and Culture, Republic of Srpska, decision, no. 07.030-611-01-6/09 of 13/8/2009.

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ORGINALNI NAUČNI RADOVI
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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 20.03.2023.
Rad odobren: 16.06.2023.

UDK 338.486.1.02:640.442(497.6Banja Luka)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330011V
COBISS.RS-ID 138847233
Originalan naučni rad

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STAVOVI GASTRONOMSKIH TURISTA U CILJU RAZVOJA GASTRONOMSKOG TURIZMA - STUDIJA SLUČAJA IZ BANJALUKE

Rezime: *Gastronomska ponuda može pozitivno uticati na razvoj turističke destinacije. Tačna analiza i pravilno razumevanje razlika između turista pomoći će turističkim menadžerima da stvore veće zadovoljstvo kupaca i povećaju poslovne prihode. Svrha ovog istraživanja je da se ispitaju stavovi gastronomskih turista i njihovo mišljenje o razvoju gastronomskog turizma grada Banja Luka, Republika Srpska, Bosna i Hercegovina. U istraživanju je učestvovalo 296 ispitanika, posetilaca banjalučkih restorana. Razlike su testirane t-testom za nezavisne uzorke. Dobijeni rezultati su pokazali da postoje razlike u stavovima turista, između muškog i ženskog pola, starosti i stepena obrazovanja, ali ne i u mesečnim primanjima ili zaradama. Rezultati ovog istraživanja mogu biti od koristi lokalnom sektoru, koji ima odgovornost za promociju ili marketing grada, turističkih organizacija i restorana na području Banjaluke. Za analizu podataka korišćen je softverski program SPSS verzija 26.00.*

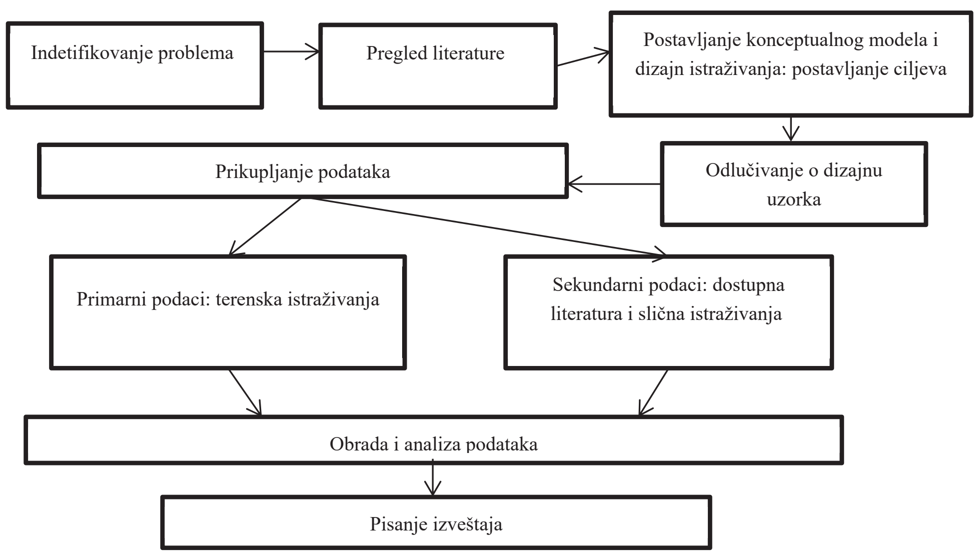
Ključne reči: *gastronomska ponuda, gastronomija, turizam, Banja Luka, stavovi turista*

JEL klasifikacija: *M31, D40, D20*

UVOD

Strani i domaći turisti su važne strateške grupe za razvoj turizma u turističkim destinacijama. Uspeh turističkog proizvoda i destinacije u velikoj meri zavisi od njihove percepcije (Vuksanović i drugi 2018). Turisti iz različitih kulturnih sredina razmišljaju i ponašaju se drugačije (Li He i Kiao 2021). Stoga će precizno uočavanje i pravilno razumevanje kulturnih razlika pomoći turističkim menadžerima u povećanju zadovoljstva kupaca i poslovnih prihoda (Jia 2020). Turisti različitih kategorija mogu imati različite percepcije ponude restorana, što direktno utiče na popularnost ugostiteljskog sektora, kao i na ukupan razvoj turističke destinacije. Banja Luka je drugi po veličini grad u Bosni i Hercegovini sa bogatom istorijom i turističkim atrakcijama, uključujući nasleđe, znamenitosti i vodene površine te mnogo gastronomske ponude. Međutim, malo pažnje se poklanja gastronomskom turizmu i percepciji kako domaćih, tako i stranih turista o ovoj ponudi i njihovom potencijalu da unaprede razvoj turizma u Banjoj Luci. Istraživanjem u ovoj oblasti dominiraju brige za životnu sredinu, razvoj lokalne gastronomije, kao marketinškog alata za promociju turizma i uticaj stavova stanovnika na potrošnju gastronomskih proizvoda (Vuksanović i drugi 2017a;

2017b; 2016), ostavljajući važan element percepcije turista o restoranskoj ponudi sa minimalnom pažnjom u diskursu razvoja turizma i ugostiteljstva. Kao rezultat toga, primarni fokus ovog rada je istraživanje percepcije stranih i domaćih turista o ponudi restorana u Banjoj Luci. Budući da je turistička percepcija toliko važna u razvoju gastronomskog turizma, ovaj rad je nastojao da identifikuje turističku percepciju i značaj restoranske ponude u Banjoj Luci. Takođe je posmatrano kako se percepcije turista razlikuju na osnovu njihovih socio-demografskih karakteristika. Ova studija je jedna od prvih koja istražuje percepciju turista o restoranskoj ponudi u Banjoj Luci i na taj način doprinosi literaturi o turizmu i ugostiteljstvu u zemlji odražavajući percepciju turista o restoranskoj ponudi. Postavljanje standarda za istraživanje percepcije turista o restoranima i drugim ugostiteljskim uslugama. Model ove studije je sličan studiji Vuksanovića i sar. o percepciji turista na teritoriji Sremskih Karlovaca iz 2018. godine. Ostatak rada će se koncentrisati na pregled literature, korišćenu metodologiju, rezultate studije i njene zaključke.
Koncept metode istraživanja može se videti na sledećem dijagramu (slika 1).



Slika 1. Dijagram koncepta metodologije istraživanja (autori)

1. PREGLED LITERATURE

Turisti iz različitih kulturnih sredina različito misle i deluju. Precizno uočavanje i pravilno razumevanje kulturnih razlika će pomoći turističkim menadžerima u generisanju većeg zadovoljstva kupaca i povećanju poslovnih prihoda. Pored toga, hrana i turizam su uvek bili visoko integrisani da bi privukli turiste i ostvarili prihod na sinergijski način (Jia 2020). Sve veći broj istraživača (Chang i drugi 2010; Stevart i drugi 2008; Vuksanović i drugi 2018) naglašava važnost istraživanja turističkog interesovanja i preferencija u hrani u destinaciji iz perspektive ugostiteljstva i turizma (Gajić i drugi 2021a; Gajić i drugi 2023; Vukolić i drugi 2023). Ponuda restorana (iskustvo hrane ili gastronomije) je važan faktor koji utiče na turističku percepciju destinacije (Vuksanović et al. 2018; Vukolić 2020; Gajić et al. 2021a). Hrana se ističe kao četvrti faktor koji doprinosi percepciji atraktivnosti destinacije u savremenoj literaturi, što implicira da sliku ili atraktivnost destinacije treba meriti atributima uključujući hranu i holistički ih evaluirati (Echtner i drugi 1993; Hu i drugi 1993; Vuksanovi i drugi 2018; Gajić i drugi 2022).

Restorani nastoje da poboljšaju zadovoljstvo turista kao dobavljači hrane u gradskim turističkim atrakcijama, jer zadovoljstvo vodi ka pozitivnom prenošenju reklame od usta do usta i povećanju prodaje (Han i Riu 2009; Liu i Jang 2009). Međutim, zbog komplikovane interakcije hrane, okruženja, usluge, međuljudske interakcije i motivacije za obedovanje, otkrivanje i razumevanje zadovoljstva kupaca restorana je teško (Ha i Jang 2010; Riu Lee i Kim 2012; Wu i Liang 2009). Riu i koautori otkrili su da kombinacija hrane i usluge utiče na zadovoljstvo gostiju restorana (Riu i drugi 2012). Autori Wu i Liang su otkrili da interakcija kupaca restorana sa zaposlenima koji ih uslužuju, drugim potrošačima i faktorima životne sredine ima značajan uticaj na zadovoljstvo (Wu and Liang 2009). Prilikom odabira restorana, aroma i ukus su univerzalni kriterijumi za goste, iako pojedinci imaju svoje preferencije u pogledu ukusa na osnovu svog životnog iskustva i kulture (Clark i Wood 1999). Pored individualnih preferencija, još jedan faktor koji može uticati na odluku turista o tome da li je hrana ukusna ili ne je nepoznat ukus i tekstura hrane (Chang 2007). Takođe, demografske i socio-ekonomske karakteristike turista utiču na njihove preferencije prema lokalnoj hrani (Kim i drugi 2009; Khan 1981; Ignatov i Smith, 2006; Mitchell i Hall 2003; Gajić i drugi 2022c). Stoga je važno identifikovati ponudu restorana i razumeti kako ovi atributi utiču na percepciju turista u gastronomskom turizmu (Vuksanović i drugi 2018). Raznovrsnost jela, lokalne hrane i pića, inovativnost u kuhinji i druge karakteristike kuhinje su atributi koji su se pokazali važnim u drugim popularnim istraživanjima (Chang i drugi 2010; Jalis i drugi 2009).

Socio-demografske karakteristike identifikovane su kao značajne varijable u objašnjavanju varijacija u potrošnji hrane u različitim kontekstima u različitim studijama koje se odnose na potrošnju hrane (Choe i Kim 2018; Kraus i drugi 2017; Niangasa i drugi 2019; Knežević i Ivković 2022). Razvoj turizma je znatno više uslovljen kvalitetom životne sredine u odnosu na druge delatnosti, tako da stepen očuvanosti i atraktivnosti životne sredine direktno odražava mogućnosti razvoja turizma na jednom području, pokretanom prirodnim i kulturnim vrednostima (Cvijanović i drugi 2018; Knežević i drugi 2022). Razvoj turizma u kontekstu gastronomije mora biti održiv, što zahteva jednaku pažnju odnosa između turizma i životne sredine (Gajić i drugi 2021, Gajić i Vukolić 2021). U uslovima afirmacije selektivnih oblika turizma, ova činjenica je prepoznata i ugrađena u poslovnu politiku turističkih preduzeća na tržištu. Velika većina vlasnika ili menadžera ugostiteljskih objekata smatra da povećanje ponude tradicionalnih jela može povećati broj turista i lojalnost gostiju (Vukolić 2020).

Gastronomski turizam se definiše kao poseta turista primarnih ili sekundarnih proizvođača hrane, festivalima hrane, ugostiteljskim objektima za proizvodnju i usluživanje hrane i određenim destinacijama za degustaciju i/ili doživljaj atributa regionalnih specijaliteta, gde je hrana primarni motiv putovanja. (Hal i Mitchell 2006; Vujović i Jovanović 2012; Vukolić 2020). Kulinarski ili prehrambeni turizam smatra se potragom za posebnim iskustvom u jelu i piću koje se dugo pamti. Pod pojmom gastronomski turizam podrazumeva se putovanje na one destinacije gde su lokalna hrana i piće glavni motiv za privlačenje turista ili gostiju (Gajić i drugi 2021; Vukolić i drugi 2022b). Faktor od kojeg najviše zavisi dalji razvoj turizma je ulaganje u razvoj turističke ponude. Ovu oblast stimulisanja ulaganja u ponudu treba podrediti otklanjanjem nastale disproporcije i ograničenja – podizanjem nivoa kvaliteta ponude i podizanjem reproduktivnog kapaciteta turističke privrede (Vukolić 2020; Gajić i drugi 2021a).

Osim privlačne i autentične ponude koju ugostiteljski objekat plasira na tržište dajući autentičnim, nacionalnim i sentimentalnim nazivima jelima, utiče i na očuvanje i promociju gastronomske kulture i tradicije regiona (Vukolić 2019; Gajić i Vukolić 2021). Istraživanja autora Gajić i saradnika (Gajić i drugi 2021a; Gajić i drugi 2021b) su značajna u turističkoj industriji, jer razmatraju veće mogućnosti za razvoj gastronomije, što će na različite načine uticati na razvoj turizma.

Grad Banja Luka imao je važeću Strategiju razvoja turizma za period 2013-2020, kao i Akcioni plan razvoja turizma Grada 2018-2022. Banja Luka je u 2016. godini bila vodeća turistička destinacija po broju dolazaka turista (domaćih i stranih). Po ukupnom broju noćenja Banjaluka je na drugom mestu iza Teslića. Najviše ostvarenih noćenja stranih turista imala je Banja Luka, ali ako se posmatraju noćenja domaćih turista, kao i ukupan broj noćenja, vodeća destinacija je Teslić.

Tabela 1. Podaci o broju turista - dolazaka i noćenja u 2019. godini (Turistička organizacija Banja Luka)

Period	Dolasci			Noćenja		
	Domaći turisti	Strani turisti	Ukupno	Domaći turisti	Strani turisti	Ukupno
Januar	2.110	2.555	4.665	3.061	4.445	7.506
Februar	2.897	2.713	5.610	4.183	4.650	8.833
Mart	3.764	4.023	7.787	5.815	7.918	13.733
April	3.361	4.060	7.421	4.795	6.900	11.695
Maj	3.224	5.565	8.789	4.575	8.989	13.564
Jun	2.771	4.704	7.475	4.237	7.749	11.986
Jul	2.366	3.688	6.054	3.180	6.413	9.593
Avgust	1.996	3.810	5.806	2.807	5.618	8.425
Septembar	3.418	4.742	8.160	4.610	7.642	12.252
Oktobar	4.433	5.349	9.782	6.117	8.538	14.655
Novembar	3.678	4.312	7.990	5.179	6.984	12.163
Decembar	4.522	4.042	8.564	5.859	6.432	12.291
Ukupno	38.540	49.563	88.103	54.418	82.278	136.696

To je i razumljivo, budući da je Teslić poznata banjska destinacija, gde se posebno domaći turisti zadržavaju duže (u proseku oko 5 dana) zbog korišćenja zdravstvenih i banjskih usluga (Strategija razvoja 2018). Prema podacima Turističke organizacije Banjaluka, u 2019. godini ovo mesto je posetilo 54.418 domaćih i 82.278 stranih turista, ukupno 136.696 (noćenja) (tabela 1).

2. METODOLOGIJA

Ovo istraživanje je sprovedeno na području Banjaluke, Republika Srpska, Bosna i Hercegovina u periodu od marta do jula 2022. godine u 13 *A la carte* restorana. Korišćen je kvantitativni pristup i anketiranje za prikupljanje podataka od stranih i domaćih turista, čiji su dolasci registrovani na teritoriji Banjaluke u Republici Srpskoj, BiH. Istraživanje je sprovedeno 2022. godine sa turistima koji su posetili restorane sa prilagođenim mernim jedinicama autora (Jalis i drugi 2009) i autora (Vuksanović i drugi 2018). Identifikovano je ukupno 10 atributa (pitanja), koji su dalje korišćeni u skali za ispitivanje percepcije turista o ponudi restorana. Upitnik se sastoji iz tri dela. Prvi deo upitnika je saglasnost ispitanika da popuni upitnik. Popunjavanje upitnika je bilo anonimno. Drugi deo se odnosio na demografske i socio-ekonomske karakteristike ispitanika: pol, starost, stepen obrazovanja i mesečna primanja. Treći deo upitnika odnosi se na ispitivanje percepcije turista o ponudi restorana (tabela 6), koji je sadržala 10 stavki. Odgovori na upitnik mereni su na osnovu Likertove skale, 1 – uopšte se ne slažem, 2 – uglavnom se ne slažem, 3 – neutralno, 4 – uglavnom se slažem i 5 – apsolutno se slažem.

Istraživanje je sprovedeno preko obučenih anketara, gde je svaki posetilac koji je prisustvovao događaju bio član skupa nasumičnih uzoraka. Zadatak anketara je bio da lično intervjuišu posetioce. Budući da je intervju vođen putem intervjuisanja papirom i olovkom (PAPI) (Lavrakas 2008), sposobnost anketara da objasne pitanja u obrascu ankete, ako to ispitanici zahtevaju, bila je od suštinskog značaja. Metoda uzorkovanja je jednostavna metoda slučajnog uzorka. Ukupno je podeljeno 300 upitnika, a analizirano je 296 upitnika koji su dali stopu odgovora od 98,7%.

Da bi se proverile razlike u percepciji turista o ponudi restorana između stranih i domaćih turista, sproveden je t-test za nezavisne uzorke. Zavisna varijabla (percepcija turista) merena je u odnosu na socio-demografske karakteristike (pol, starost, obrazovanje i plata) turista. Sledeći deo rada predstavlja rezultate studije.

3. REZULTATI I DISKUSIJA

Istraživanjem je obuhvaćeno 296 ispitanika na području Banjaluke, Republika Srpska, Bosna i Hercegovina. Od ukupnog broja ispitanika, 33,1% su bili muškarci, a 66,9% žene (tabela 2).

Tabela 2. Polna struktura ispitanika (autori)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	98	33.1	33.1	100.0
	Female	198	66.9	66.9	66.9
	Total	296	100.0	100.0	

U tabeli 3. prikazana je starosna struktura uzorka u turističkoj destinaciji. Broj ispitanika u starosnoj kategoriji između 18 i 30 godina je 99 (33,4%). Sledeću kategoriju čine ispitanici starosti između 31 i 60 godina i ima 126 (42,6%) ispitanika, dok je najmanji broj ispitanika u kategoriji starijih od 60 godina, a ima ih 71 (24%) koji su posjetili Banjaluku.

Tabela 3. Starosna struktura ispitanika (autori)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-30	99	33.4	33.4	33.4
	31-60	126	42.6	42.6	76.0
	61	71	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	296	100.0	100.0	

U tabeli 4. prikazana je struktura uzorka po stepenu obrazovanja. Najveći broj ispitanika ima završenu srednju školu (N=104) i VSS (N=100). Nešto manji broj ispitanika ima završene master/doktorske studije (N=82), a najmanji broj ispitanika ima osnovnu školu (N=10).

Tabela 4. Nivo obrazovanja ispitanika (autori)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Osnovna škola	10	3.4	3.4	3.4
	Srednja škola	104	35.1	35.1	38.5
	Visoka ili viša škola	100	33.8	33.8	72.3
	Master ili doktorat	82	27.7	27.7	100.0

U tabeli 5. prikazana je struktura uzorka u pogledu prosečnih mesečnih primanja ispitanika koji su posetili Banjaluku. Većina ispitanika (N=118) je procenila da imaju prosečne prihode u domaćinstvu, dok je nešto manje ispitanika ocenilo svoje prihode kao iznadprosečne (N=126). Najmanji broj ispitanika je ocenio da ima prihode u domaćinstvu ispod prosečnih (N=52).

Tabela 5. Nivo zarade ispitanika (autori)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Zarada ispod proseka (<400€)	52	17.6	17.6	17.6
	Prosečna zarada (400-700€)	118	39.9	39.9	57.4

	Zarada iznad proseka (700-1500€)	94	31.8	31.8	89.2
	Izrazito visoka zarada (>1500€)	32	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	296	100.0	100.0	

U tabeli 6. su prikazani odgovori na pitanja koja se odnose na percepciju turista o ponudi restorana u smislu srednjih vrednosti i standardnih devijacija svake stavke. Većina ispitanika se složila da restorani predstavljaju atmosferu koja ostavlja pozitivan utisak (m=3,70; sd=1,238). Ipak, restoranska ponuda je privukla njihovu pažnju u pozitivnom smislu (m=4,47; sd= ,722). Zbog toga, nije iznenađujuće što su uživali u jelima koja su restorani nudili u velikim količinama (m=4,57; sd= ,728) i što su potrošili mnogo novca (m=4,15; sd=1,131). Najviše neslaganja ili neutralnog stava se može primetiti kod indikatora koji se odnose na uživanje u jelima i pićima u ponudi restorana (m=2,99; sd= 1,349) i potrošnje jela koja su poznavali iz prošlosti (m=3,00 sd=1,278). Turisti se nisu složili sa stavom da su samo probali jela iz ponude. Primećuje se da se tokom posete posetioci zainteresuju za ponudu restorana. Ovo može biti rezultat toga što restorani nude uglavnom lokalnu hranu i piće (m=4,22; sd=,842). Ispitanici su izjavili da su uživali u tradicionalnosti restoranske ponude (m= 4,76; sd= ,436) te su, stoga, stekli pozitivna iskustva u nekoliko tradicionalnih načina pripreme hrane (m=4,66; sd= ,691). Pored toga, turisti u Banjaluci uče o tradiciji i kulturi ishrane grada (m=4,77; sd= ,549).

Tabela 6**.** Deskriptivni pokazatelji skale za ispitivanje percepcije turista o ponudi restorana (autori)

Indicators	**% in agreement**	**m**	**sd**
Atmosfera u restoranu je veoma dobra	8.92	3.70	1.238
Ponuda restorana mi je privukla pažnju	13.55	4.47	.722
Uživao sam u jelima i pićima iz ponude restorana	7.02	2.99	1.349
Konzumirao sam jela koja sam poznavao iz prošlosti	10.11	3.00	1.278
U restoranu ponuda je uglavnom tradicionalna hrana i piće	8.82	4.22	.842
Uživao sam u tradicionalnosti ponude restorana	8.64	4.76	.436
Uživao sam da jedem jela u velikim količinama	7.03	4.57	.728
Doživeo sam nekoliko tradicionalnih metoda pripreme hrane	11.88	4.66	.691
Uglavnom sam učio o tradiciji i kulturi ishrane	9.93	4.77	.549
Potrošio sam mnogo novca na jela iz restoranske ponude	14.01	4.15	1.131

*m=mean; sd=standard deviation

U tabeli 7. prikazana je analiza primenjene skale. Na osnovu vrednosti multivarijantne asimetrije i kurtozisa, može se zaključiti da odgovori ispitanika na skalu percepcije turista o ponudi restorana ne odstupaju značajno od normalne distribucije. U ovom istraživanju, koeficijenti pouzdanosti izraženi u terminima Cronbah-ove alfe i oni iznose .895 (tabela 7).

Tabela 7. Statistika pouzdanosti (autori)

Cronbach's Alpha	**N of Items**
.887	10

T-test za nezavisne uzorke je primenjen sa faktorima: pol i percepcija turista. Rezultati pokazuju da postoji statistički značajna razlika između polova (t=2,21; p<0,03). Ovi rezultati pokazuju da se mišljenje muškaraca značajno razlikuje od mišljenja žena kada je u pitanju percepcija ponude restorana, u smislu da ponuda varira u pogledu kvaliteta hrane i doživljaja u destinaciji.
Rezultati ANOVA testa za nezavisne uzorke pokazuju da postoji statistički minimalna značajna razlika između starosnih grupa. Rezultati pokazuju da je odgovor veoma sličan za sve grupe što se može videti u tabeli 8.

Tabela 8. Turistička percepcija ponude restorana / ANOVA za starosne grupe (autori)

Age	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
31-40	35	3.52
41-50	38	3.56
18-30	204	3.61
Over 60 year	19	3.61
Sig.		.804

Da bi se proverile razlike u obrazovanju među ispitanicima koji su trošili mnogo novca na jela iz restoranske ponude, primenjen je ANOVA test za nezavisne uzorke sa faktorima: obrazovanje i percepcija turista o ponudi restorana. Rezultati pokazuju da postoji statistički značajna razlika između obrazovnih grupa. Uočavaju se različiti odgovori kod ispitanika različitog obrazovnog statusa, što se vidi u tabeli 9.

Tabela 9. Turistička percepcija ponude restorana / ANOVA za obrazovanje (autori)

Education	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Osnovna škola	22	2.54
Visoka ili viša škola	173	4.18
Srednja škola	82	3.60
Master ili doktorat	19	4.77
Sig.		.592

Rezultati ANOVA testa za nezavisne uzorke pokazuju da nema statistički značajne razlike između grupa mesečnih prihoda u turističkoj percepciji kao što se može videti u tabeli 10.

Tabela 10. Turistička percepcija ponude restorana / ANOVA za prihode (autori)

Income	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Above average	101	3.53
Average	132	3.60
Below average	63	3.66
Sig.		.135

ZAKLJUČAK

Prema nalazima istraživanja, postoje razlike u ponudi restorana između različitih grupa turista. Dobijeni rezultati pokazuju da postoje razlike između varijabli pol, starost i stepen obrazovanja, ali ne i mesečna primanja. Prema nalazima, muškarci se značajno razlikuju od žena u percepciji ponude restorana, a postoji i razlika u starosnoj varijabli u njihovoj percepciji ponude restorana. Stariji turisti imaju pozitivniju percepciju ponude restorana u pogledu raznovrsnosti i kvaliteta hrane, kao i potpuni doživljaj na destinaciji. Moguće razlike u grupama posetilaca u varijabli obrazovanja, gde posetioci sa višim stepenom obrazovanja imaju pozitivniju ocenu ponude restorana, mogu se objasniti činjenicom da su bili spremniji da probaju više jela od ostalih grupa ispitanika. Na osnovu nalaza i diskusije, zaključuje se da je za buduća istraživanja ponude restorana kritično uvažavanje razlika između grupa u pogledu socio-demografskih karakteristika i percepcije stranih i domaćih turista. Prema saznanjima autora, slična istraživanja nisu rađena ni u Banjaluci ni u Republici Srpskoj.

Zbog toga ovaj rad daje novi uvid u značaj turističke percepcije o ugostiteljskoj ponudi, kao delu gastronomskog turizma i kako poboljšati prihvatljivost među posetiocima koji ima za cilj razvoj gastronomskog turizma u Banjoj Luci i Republici Srpskoj. Dobijeni rezultati ukazuju da su turisti uglavnom pozitivno ocenili svoje iskustvo u pogledu ponude restorana, odnosno da su uživali u raznovrsnosti jela, lokalnih specijaliteta, što je bio slučaj u sličnim studijama u zemljama u okruženju. Kada je u pitanju planiranje gastronomskog razvoja destinacije, ugostiteljski sektor treba da obrati pažnju na percepciju turista u odnosu na ponudu restorana, jer to može značajno uticati na razvoj destinacije. Dobijeni rezultati mogu biti korisni za lokalni sektor, koji ima kompetencije stručnjaka za marketing, turističke organizacije i restorane na području Banjaluke, ali i Republike Srpske i Bosne i Hercegovine, a u cilju razvoja gastronomskog turizma i šanse za razvoj novih oblika turizma. Tokom istraživanja su se pojavila određena ograničenja. Glavno ograničenje je bio pregled stranih turista, jer je njihov broj u sadašnjem periodu bio manji. Ovo je povezano sa izbijanjem pandemije Covid-19, što može biti tema za neka buduća istraživanja.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 20/03/2023
The paper accepted: 16/06/2023

UDK 338.486.1.02:640.442(497.6Banja Luka)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330023V
COBISS.RS-ID 138850561
Original scientific paper

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ATTITUDES OF GASTRONOMY TOURISTS TOWARDS THE DEVELOPMENT OF GASTRONOMY TOURISM - A CASE STUDY FROM BANJA LUKA

Summary: *Gastronomic offer can have positive effects on the development of a tourist destination. Accurate analysis and proper understanding of the differences between tourists will help tourism managers to create greater customer satisfaction and increase business income. The purpose of this research is to examine the attitudes of gastronomic tourists and their opinion on the development of gastronomic tourism in the city of Banja Luka, the Republic of Srpska, Bosnia and Herzegovina. 296 respondents, visitors to Banja Luka restaurants, participated in the research. Differences were tested by t-test for independent samples. The obtained results showed that there are differences in the attitudes of tourists, between male and female gender, age and level of education, but not in monthly income or earnings. The results of this research can be useful to the local sector, which has responsibilities for the promotion or marketing of the city, tourist organizations and restaurants in the Banja Luka area. The software program SPSS version 26.00 was used for data analysis.*

Key words: *gastronomic offer, gastronomy, tourism, Banja Luka, tourists attitudes*

JEL classification: *M31, D40, D20*

INTRODUCTION

Foreign and domestic tourists are important strategic groups for tourism development in tourist destinations. The success of a tourist product and destination is heavily reliant on their perception (Vuksanovic et al. 2018). Tourists from different cultural backgrounds think and act differently (Li He and Qiao 2021). Thus, precisely capturing and correctly understanding cultural differences will assist tourism managers in increasing customer satisfaction and business revenue (Jia 2020). Tourists of various categories may have different perceptions of a restaurant offer, which has a direct impact on the popularity of the hospitality sector as well as the overall development of the tourist destination. Banja Luka is the second-largest city in Bosnia and Herzegovina with rich history and tourist attractions including heritage, landmarks, vegetation and water bodies, and many gastronomic offerings. However, little attention is given to gastronomic tourism and the perception of both local and foreign tourists about these offerings and their potential to improve tourism

development in Banja Luka. Research in this area is dominated by environmental concerns, the development of local gastronomy as a marketing tool for promoting tourism, and the influence of the resident's attitudes on the consumption of food products (Vuksanović et al. 2017a; 2017b; 2016), leaving the important element of perception of tourists about restaurant offerings with minimal attention in tourism and hospitality development discourse. As a result, the primary focus of this paper is to investigate the perceptions of foreign and domestic tourists regarding the restaurant offerings in Banja Luka. Because tourist perception is so important in the development of gastronomic tourism, this paper sought to identify tourist perception and the significance of restaurant offers in Banja Luka. It also looked at how tourists' perceptions differed based on their socio-demographic characteristics. This study is one of the first to investigate tourists' perceptions of restaurant offerings in Banja Luka, and it thus contributes to the literature on tourism and hospitality in the country by reflecting tourists' perceptions of restaurant offerings. Setting the standard for research into tourists' perceptions of restaurants and other hospitality services. This study's model is similar to Vuksanović and colleagues' 2018 study on tourists' perceptions in Serbia Sremski Karlovci territory. The remainder of the paper will concentrate on the literature review, the methodology used, the study's results, and its conclusions.
The concept of the research method can be seen in the following diagram (Figure 1).

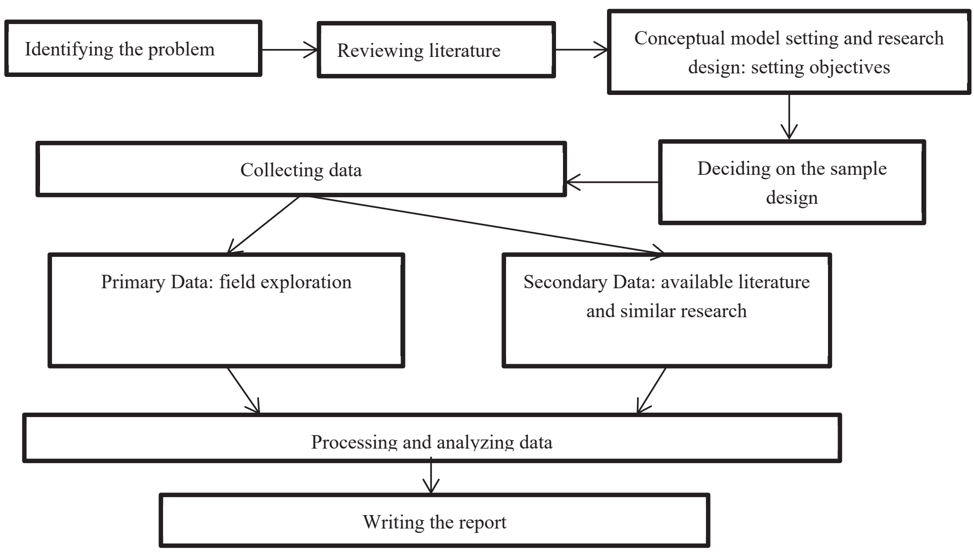

Figure 1. Diagram of research methodology concept (Authors)

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourists from different cultural backgrounds think and act differently. Precisely capturing and correctly understanding cultural differences will assist tourism managers in generating greater customer satisfaction and increased business revenue. Additionally, food and tourism have always been highly integrated to attract tourists and generate revenue in a synergistic manner (Jia 2020). A growing number of researchers (Chang et al. 2010; Stewart et al. 2008; Vuksanović et al. 2018) have emphasized the importance of researching tourist interest and food preferences in a destination from the perspective of hospitality and tourism (Gajić et al. 2021a; Gajić et al. 2023; Vukolić et al. 2023). The restaurant offer (food or dining experience) is an important factor that influences tourist perception of a destination (Vuksanovic et al. 2018; Vukolić 2020; Gajić et al. 2021a). Food is emphasized as the fourth factor contributing to the perception of attractiveness of a destination in contemporary literature, implying that the image or attractiveness of the destination should be measured by attributes including food and holistically evaluated (Echtner et al. 1993; Hu et al. 1993; Vuksanovi et al. 2018; Gajić et al. 2022).

Restaurants strive to improve tourist customer satisfaction as food suppliers in city tourist attractions, because satisfaction leads to positive word-of-mouth and increased sales (Han and Ryu 2009; Liu and Jang 2009). However, due to the complicated interplay of food, environment, service, interpersonal interaction, and diner motivation, detecting and understanding restaurant customer satisfaction has been difficult (Ha and Jang 2010; Ryu Lee, and Kim 2012; Wu and Liang 2009). Authors Ryu et al., for example, discovered that the combination of food and service influences restaurant customer satisfaction (Ryu et al. 2012). Authors Wu and Liang discovered that the interaction of restaurant customers with service employees, other consumers, and environmental factors has a significant impact on satisfaction (Wu and Liang 2009). When choosing a restaurant, aroma and taste are universal criteria for guests, although individuals have their preferences in terms of taste based on their lived experiences and culture (Clark and Wood 1999). In addition to individual preferences, another factor that can influence the decision of the tourists on whether food is delicious or not is the unfamiliar taste and texture of food (Chang 2007). Also, the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of tourists influence their preferences towards local food (Kim et al. 2009; Khan 1981; Ignatov and Smith, 2006; Mitchell Hall 2003; Gajić et al. 2022c). It is, therefore, important to identify the restaurant offers and understand how these attributes influence the perception of tourists in gastronomic tourism (Vuksanović et al. 2018). The variety of dishes, local food and beverages, cuisine innovation, and other characteristics of cuisine are attributes that have proved important in other popular research (Chang et al. 2010; Jalis et al. 2009).

Socio-demographic characteristics have been identified as significant variables in explaining variations in food consumption in various contexts in various studies related to food consumption (Choe and Kim 2018; Kraus et al. 2017; Nyangasa et al. 2019; Knežević and Ivković 2022). Tourism development is significantly more conditioned by the quality of the environment than other activities, such that the degree of preservation and attractiveness of the environment directly reflects the possibilities for tourism development in an area, propelled by natural and cultural values (Cvijanovi et al. 2018; Knežević et al. 2022). Tourism development in the context of gastronomy must be sustainable, which requires equal attention to the relationship between tourism and the environment (Gajić et al. 2021, Gajić and Vukolić 2021). In the conditions of affirmation of selective forms of tourism, this fact is recognized and incorporated into the business policies of tourism businesses in the market. The vast majority of owners or managers of catering facilities believe that increasing the supply of traditional dishes can lead to an increase in the number of tourists and guests patronage (Vukolić 2020).

Gastronomic tourism is defined as the visit of tourists of primary or secondary food producers, food festivals, catering facilities for food production and service, and certain destinations for tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of regional specialties, where food is the primary motive for travel (Hall and Mitchell 2006; Vujović and Jovanović 2012; Vukolić 2020). Culinary tourism or food tourism is considered as the search for a special experience in eating and drinking, which is remembered for a long time. The term gastronomic tourism means to travel to those destinations where local food and drinks are the main motives for attracting tourists or guests (Gajić et al. 2021; Vukolić et al. 2022b). The factor on which the further development of tourism depends the most is the investment in the development of the tourist offer. This area of stimulating investment in supply should be subordinated by eliminating the resulting disproportion and limitations - raising the quality level offers and raising the reproductive capacity of the tourism industry (Vukolić 2020; Gajić 2021).

Aside from the appealing and authentic offer that the catering facility places on the market by giving authentic, national, and sentimental names to the dishes, it also has an impact on the preservation and promotion of the region's gastronomic culture and traditions (Vukolić 2019; Gajić and Vukolić 2021). Authors Gajić et al. research is significant in the tourism industry because it considers greater opportunities for the development of gastronomy, which will affect the development of tourism in various ways (Gajić et al. 2021a; Gajić et al. 2021b).
The City of Banja Luka has a valid Tourism Development Strategy for the period 2013-2020, and in preparation is also the Action Plan for the development of tourism in the City 2018-2022. In 2016, Banja Luka was, the leading tourist destination in terms of the number of tourist arrivals (both domestic and foreign). In the total number of overnight stays, Banja Luka is in second place behind Teslić. Banja Luka had the most realized overnight stays of foreign tourists, but if we look at overnight stays realized by domestic tourists, as well as the total number of overnight stays, the leading destination is Teslić.

Table 1. Data on the number of tourists - arrivals and nights in 2019.year (Tourist organization Banja Luka)

Period	**Arrivals**			**Nights**		
	Domestic tourists	**Foreign tourists**	**In total**	**Domestic tourists**	**Foreign tourists**	**In total**
January	2.110	2.555	4.665	3.061	4.445	7.506
February	2.897	2.713	5.610	4.183	4.650	8.833
March	3.764	4.023	7.787	5.815	7.918	13.733
April	3.361	4.060	7.421	4.795	6.900	11.695
May	3.224	5.565	8.789	4.575	8.989	13.564
June	2.771	4.704	7.475	4.237	7.749	11.986
July	2.366	3.688	6.054	3.180	6.413	9.593
August	1.996	3.810	5.806	2.807	5.618	8.425
September	3.418	4.742	8.160	4.610	7.642	12.252
October	4.433	5.349	9.782	6.117	8.538	14.655
November	3.678	4.312	7.990	5.179	6.984	12.163
December	4.522	4.042	8.564	5.859	6.432	12.291
In total	38.540	49.563	88.103	54.418	82.278	136.696

That is understandable, having since Teslić is a well-known destination for spas, where especially domestic tourists stay longer (about 5 days on average) due to the use of health and spa services (Development strategy 2018). According to the data of the Tourism Organization of Banja Luka, in 2019, 54.418 domestic and 82.278 foreign tourists, in total 136.696 visited (overnight stays) in this city (Table 1).

2. METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted in the area of Banja Luka, The Republic of Srpska, Bosnia and Herzegovina in the period from March to July 2022 in 13 A la carte restaurants. A quantitative approach was used and a survey was used to collect data from foreign and domestic tourists whose arrivals are registered in the territory of Banja Luka in the Republic of Srpska, Bosnia and Herzegovina. The survey was conducted in 2022 with tourists who visited restaurants with adapted measurement items from authors (Jalis et al. 2009) and authors (Vuksanović et al. 2018). A total of 10 attributes (question items) were identified, which were further used in the scale for examining tourists' perceptions of restaurants' offers. The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part of the questionnaire is the respondent's consent to fill out the questionnaire. Filling out a questionnaire is anonymous. The second part refers to the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents: gender, age, level of education, and monthly income. The third part of the questionnaire refers to the examination of tourists' perception of restaurants' offers (Table 6), which contains 10 items. Answers to the questionnaire were measured based on the Likert scale, 1- strongly disagree, 2 - mostly disagree, 3-neutral, 4 - generally agree, and 5 - absolutely agree.

The survey was conducted through trained interviewers, where each visitor who attended the event was a member of a set of random samples. The task of interviewers was to personally interview visitors. Since the interview was conducted through paper and pencil interviewing (PAPI) (Lavrakas 2008), the ability of the interviewers to explain the questions in the survey form, if it is required by the respondents, was essential. The sampling method is a simple random sample method. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed and 296 useful questionnaires were received generating a response rate of 98.7%.

In order to check the differences in tourists' perception of restaurants offer between foreign and domestic tourists, a t-test for independent samples was conducted. The dependent variable (tourists' perception) was measured against the socio-demographic characteristics (i.e., gender, age, education, and salary) of tourists. The next section of the paper presents the results of the study.

3. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The study covered 296 respondents in the area of Banja Luka, The Republic of Srpska Bosnia and Herzegovina. Of the total number of respondents, 33.1% were male and 66.9% female (Table 2).

Table 2**.** Gender structure of the sample (Authors)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	98	33.1	33.1	100.0
	female	198	66.9	66.9	66.9
	Total	296	100.0	100.0	

Table 3 shows the age structure of the sample in a tourist destination. The number of respondents in the age category between 18 and 30 years is 99 (33.4%). The next category consists of respondents aged between 31 and 60 years has 126 (42,6%) respondents while the smallest number of respondents were in the category over 60 years of age 71 (24%) who visited Banja Luka.

Table 3. Age structure of the sample (Authors)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-30	99	33.4	33.4	33.4
	31-60	126	42.6	42.6	76.0
	61	71	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	296	100.0	100.0	

Table 4 shows the sample structure by the level of education. The largest number of respondents have completed secondary school (N=104) and college/bachelor (N=100). A slightly lower number of respondents have completed master / doctoral studies (N=82), and the smallest number of respondents have a primary school education (N=10).

Table 4. Sample structure by level of education Author's research

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	primary school	10	3.4	3.4	3.4
	high school	104	35.1	35.1	38.5
	college or university degree	100	33.8	33.8	72.3
	master or PhD	82	27.7	27.7	100.0

Table 5 shows the sample structure in terms of the average monthly income of respondents who visited Banja Luka. Most respondents (N=118) estimated that they had average household income, while slightly fewer respondents estimated their incomes as above average (N=126). The smallest number of respondents estimated that they have below-average household income (N=52).

Table 5. Sample structure according to monthly household income (Authors)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	low average salary (<400€)	52	17.6	17.6	17.6
	medium average salary (400-700€)	118	39.9	39.9	57.4
	high average salary (700-1500€)	94	31.8	31.8	89.2
	extremely high average salary (>1500€)	32	10.8	10.8	100.0
	Total	296	100.0	100.0	

In Table 6, answers to questions related to tourists' perception of restaurants' offer are shown in terms of means and standard deviations of each item. Most respondents agreed that restaurants present an atmosphere that left much to be desired (m=3,70; sd=1,238). However, the restaurant offer attracted their attention (m=4,47; sd= ,722). It is not surprising that they enjoyed dishes that were offered in large quantities by the restaurants (m=4,57; sd= ,728) and that they spent a lot of money (m=4,15; sd=1,131). The most disagreement or neutral attitude can be noticed on indicators which relate to enjoying dishes and beverages offered by the restaurants (m=2,99; sd= 1,349) and the consumption of dishes that they knew from the past (m=3,00; sd=1,278). Tourists did not agree with the view that they just tried dishes from the offer. It can be noticed that visitors become interested in restaurants' offers during the visit. This could be as a result of restaurants offering mostly local food and beverage (m=4,22; sd= ,842). Respondents stated that they enjoyed in traditionality of the restaurant offers (m= 4,76; sd= ,436), and therefore, have gained positive experience in several traditional methods of preparing food (m=4,66; sd= ,691). In addition, tourists to Banja Luka learn about the tradition and of the food culture of the city (m=4,77; sd= ,549).

Table 6. Descriptive indicators of the scale for examining tourists' perceptionon restaurants offer (Authors)

Indicators	% in agreement	m	sd
The atmosphere in the restaurant is very well	8.92	3.70	1.238
Restaurant offer has attracted my attention	13.55	4.47	.722
I enjoyed dishes and beverages from the restaurant offers	7.02	2.99	1.349
I consumed dishes that I knew from the past	10.11	3.00	1.278
In a restaurant, offer are mostly traditional food and beverage	8.82	4.22	.842
I enjoyed in traditionality of the restaurant offers	8.64	4.76	.436
I enjoyed eating dishes in large quantities	7.03	4.57	.728

I experienced several traditional methods of preparing food	11.88	4.66	.691
I have mostly learned about the tradition and of a food culture	9.93	4.77	.549
I spent a lot of money on dishes from restaurant offer	14.01	4.15	1.131

*m=mean; sd=standard deviation

Table 7 shows the descriptive analysis of the applied scale. Based on the values of multivariate skewness and kurtosis, it can be concluded that the answers of the respondents to the scale of the tourists' perception on restaurants offer do not deviate considerably from a normal distribution. In this survey, the reliability coefficients expressed in terms of Cronbach's Alpha is .895 (Table 7).

Table 7. Reliability Statistics (Authors)

Cronbach's Alpha	**N of Items**
.887	10

T-test for independent samples was applied with factors: gender and tourists' perception. The results show that there is a statistically significant difference between genders ($t=2.21$; $p<0.03$). These results show that men are significantly different from women when it comes to the perception of restaurants' offer, in the sense that the offer varies in terms of the quality of food and the experience at the destination. The results of the ANOVA test for independent samples show that there is a statistically minimal significant difference between age groups. The results show that the answer is very similar for all groups which can be seen in Table 8.

Table 8. Tourist perception of restaurant offer / ANOVA for age groups (Author's research)

Age	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
31-40	35	3.52
41-50	38	3.56
18-30	204	3.61
Over 60 year	19	3.61
Sig.		.804

In order to check the differences in the education among respondents in spent a lot of money on dishes from restaurant offer, the ANOVA test for independent samples was applied with factors: education and tourists' perception of restaurants offer, the results show that there is a statistically significant difference between the education groups. Different answers are noticed among the respondents of different educational status as can be seen in the table 9.

Table 9. Tourist perception of restaurant offer / ANOVA for education (Author's research)

Education	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Primary school	22	2.54
College/bachelor diplom	173	4.18
Secondary school	82	3.60
MSc or PhD	19	4.77
Sig.		.592

The ANOVA test results for independent samples show that there is no statistically significant difference between groups of monthly incomes in tourist perception as can be seen in the table 10.

Table 10. Tourist perception of restaurant offer / ANOVA for income (Author's research)

Income	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Above average	101	3.53
Average	132	3.60
Below average	63	3.66
Sig.		.135

CONCLUSION

According to the research findings, there are differences in the restaurant's offer between different groups of tourists. The obtained results show that there are differences between the variables gender, age, and level of education, but not monthly income. According to the findings, men differ significantly from women in their perceptions of restaurant offerings, and there is also a difference in the age variable in their perceptions of restaurant offerings. Older tourists have a more positive perception of restaurant offerings in terms of variety and quality of food, as well as a complete experience at the destination. Possible differences in visitor groups in the variable of education, where visitors with a higher level of education have a more positive evaluation of restaurant offers, can be explained by the fact that they were more willing to try more dishes than other groups of respondents. Based on the findings and discussion, it is concluded that it is critical for future research on the restaurant's offer to respect the differences between groups in terms of socio-demographic characteristics and the perception of foreign and domestic tourists. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no similar studies have been conducted in Banja Luka or the Republic of Srpska. Because this paper gives a new insight into the importance of tourist perception on restaurants offer, as part of gastronomic tourism and how to improve acceptability among visitors which aims to develop gastronomic tourism in Banja Luka and the Republic of Srpska. The obtained results indicate that tourists mostly positively assessed their experience regarding the restaurant's offer, that is, they enjoyed the variety of dishes, local specialties which was the case in similar studies in countries in the region. When it comes to planning the gastronomic development of a destination, the hospitality sector should pay attention to the perception of tourists in relation to the restaurant's offer, because it can significantly affect the development of the destination. The obtained results can be useful for the local sector, which has the competence of experts for marketing, tourist organizations, and restaurants in the area of Banja Luka and also in the Republic of Srpska and Bosnia and Herzegovina in order to develop gastronomic tourism and give a chance to the development of new forms of tourism. Certain limitations emerged during the research. The main limitation was the examination of foreign tourists because their number was smaller in the current period. This is related to the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic, which may be a topic for some future research.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 28.02.2023.
Rad odobren: 09.06.2023.

UDK 339.727.22:336.727.22(497.6RS)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330035M
COBISS.RS-ID 138847489
Originalan naučni rad

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STRANE DIREKTNE INVESTICIJE I EKONOMSKI RAST REPUBLIKE SRPSKE: EFEKAT PRELIJEVANJA

Rezime: *U ovom radu istražuje se uticaj stranih direktnih investicija na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Cilj istraživanja je da se naučnoj i stručnoj javnosti prikaže mehanizam stranih direktnih investicija u funkciji rasta i razvoja, kao i uticaj na targetirane makroekonomske indikatore. Istraživanje je sprovedeno analizom relevantne literature, metodom dedukcije i kvantitativnim izračunom uticaja stranih direktnih investicija na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Teorijska i empirijska analiza težile su da obezbijede odgovor na problem istraživanja koji je sublimiran pitanjem: Da li strane direktne investicije imaju uticaj na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske? Rezultati istraživanja pokazali su da ne postoji konzistentna povezanost i determinisanost zavisne varijable varijacijama nezavisne varijable istraživanja. Odnosno, kumulativna vrijednost priliva stranih direktnih investicija nije generisala statistički značajan uticaj na makroekonomske indikatore ekonomskog rasta. Na taj način potvrđena je hipoteza da strane direktne investicije, zbog neodgovarajuće sektorske strukture investiranja, nemaju značajan uticaj na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Doprinos istraživanja ogleda se u izboru analitičkog okvira istraživanja i dobijenim rezultatima istraživanja kao smjernica za kreatore ekonomskih politika u Republici Srpskoj, u pogledu faktora koji imaju (de)stimulativni uticaj na ekonomski rast.*

Ključne riječi: *Strane direktne investicije, ekonomski rast, makroekonomski indikatori, Republika Srpska*

JEL klasifikacija: *F21, F43, O10*

UVOD

Strane direktne investicije (u daljem tekstu: SDI) predstavljaju oblik međunarodnih tokova kapitala u kome investitor želi da ostvari prinos na investiciju i odlučujuću ulogu u upravljanju investicijom. Da bi privukle SDI, zemlje moraju sprovesti političke i ekonomske reforme i liberalizovati kapitalne i trgovinske tokove. Pored toga, stvoriti efikasan institucionalni okvir sa odgovarajućim administrativnim kapacitetima. Zatim, zaštitu prava investitora, posebno ugovornih prava i intelektualne svojine *de facto* i *de iure*. Poreski sistem i poreska politika ne smiju biti predmet kontinuiranih promjena političkih elita u zavisnosti od ekonomske situacije. Česte promjene poreskih stopa rezultat su nekonzistentne poreske politike i takve zemlje gube kredibilitet kod potencijalnih investitora. Makroekonomska stabilnost podrazumijeva nepostojanje značajnih fluktuacija u sektoru proizvodnje, trgovinskom bilansu i na tržištu radne snage. Navedeni faktori čine najznačajnije komponente koje stvaraju pretpostavke za priliv SDI i generisanje ekonomskog rasta.

Republika Srpska je u protekle 32 godinu prošla put transformacije ekonomskog sistema, od državno-dirigovanog do tržišno orijentisanog. Početak i kasnije faze tranzicije karakterisala je tehnološka zaostalost, niska produktivnost rada i kapitala, nedostatak znanja i vještina u procesu proizvodnje u odnosu na savremene ekonomske tokove. Logična implikacija navedenog stanja bila je povećana tražnja za SDI, kao instrumentom koji može značajno uticati na ekonomski rast.
U radu se istražuje uticaj i efekat SDI na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Problem istraživanja determinisan je pitanjem: Da li i SDI imaju uticaj na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske? Istraživanjem će biti dokazana hipoteza da strane direktne investicije, zbog neodgovarajuće sektorske strukture investiranja, nemaju značajan uticaj na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Odnosno, uticaj i uloga stranih direktnih investicija u generisanju ekonomskog rasta i pozitivnim efektom na parcijalne makroekonomske indikatore rasta statistički nije značajno.
Poslije uvodnog dijela, prvi dio rada obuhvata teorijsko-respektivni prikaz, odnosno analizu relevantne literature i dosadašnjih istraživanja u vezi sa problemom istraživanja. U drugom dijelu dat je pregled priliva i strukture SDI u Republiku Srpsku, a u trećem dijelu definiše se metodološki okvir istraživanja. Četvrti dio odnosi se na kvantitativni izračun uticaja nezavisne na zavisnu varijablu i obrazlažu se rezultati istraživanja. U petom dijelu izvršena je komparacija dobijenih rezultata istraživanja sa drugim uporedivim istraživanjima, a poslije toga navedena su zaključna razmatranja.

1. PREGLED PRETHODNIH ISTRAŽIVANJA

Strane direktne investicije su jedan od načina da zemlje generišu ekonomski rast, tako što omogućavaju, pored kumulativnog povećanja visine kapitala u ekonomiji, pristup savremenim tehnologijama, inovacijama i znanjima, a time povećanjem produktivnosti i realnih dohodaka. Strane direktne investicije predstavljaju značajan instrument ekonomskog rasta i razvoja, posebno nerazvijenih i zemalja u razvoju. Obim i efekat investiranja u nekoj zemlji zavise od velikog broja faktora koji su inkorporirani u ekonomski i politički sistem. Da bi SDI imale uticaj na ekonomski rast, potrebna je sinergija donosilaca političkih i ekonomskih odluka kako bi se kreiralo stimulativno okruženje u kome će investicije generisati benefite za nacionalnu ekonomiju *ceteris paribus*.
Većina empirijskih istraživanja uticaja SDI na ekonomski rast zasniva se na postojanju određenih pretpostavki i zadovoljenju određenih ekonomskih zakonistosti. Odnosno, potencira se opredijeljenost političkih elita kao donosilaca odluka na nacionalnom nivou, razvijenost institucionalnog, administrativnog i zakonodavnog okvira, stepen liberalizacije ekonomskih tokova i tržišnih mehanizama. Takođe, ističu se efekti i implikacije motivisanosti za investiranje u zemlje u razvoju. Sve dobre prakse zemalja u razvoju imaju istu ili sličnu teorijsku i implementacionu matricu. Odstupanje od navedenih pretpostavki smanjuje efekat i značaj investiranja, bez obzira na kumulativnu vrijednost investiranja.
Analiza Alfaro i drugi pokazala je da SDI imaju značajan uticaj na ekonomski rast. Takođe, stepen razvoja lokalnih finansijskih tržišta je krucijalan za pozitivne efekte (Alfaro i drugi 2004, 22). Pored toga, efekat investiranja zavisi i od povoljne poslovne klime, političkog i ekonomskog okvira, veličine tržišta i trgovinskog bilansa (Tsai 1994; Balasubramanyam i Salisu i Sapsford 2006). Slične rezultate dobili su i Marjanac i Grujić koji su utvrdili da su najznačajniji prediktori pozitivnih efekata SDI na ekonomski rast zemalja u razvoju političko i ekonomsko okruženje i odgovarajući institucionalni i legislativni okvir (Marjanac i Grujić 2021).
Istraživanje Barrell i Pain pokazalo je da SDI posredno utiču na targetirane makroekonomske parametre i da predstavljaju značajan kanal za širenje tehnologija (Barrell i Pain 1997). Ispitujući vezu između SDI, ekonomskog rasta i ekonomskih sloboda, na primjeru 18 zemalja Latinske Amerike, Bengoa i Sanchez-Robles došli su do rezultata o postojanju pozitivne korelacije SDI sa ekonomskim rastom zemlje domaćina i da rast ekonomskih sloboda pozitivno utiče na priliv SDI.

(Bengoa i Sanchez-Robles 2003). Azman-Saini i Baharumshah i Law dobili su iste rezultate, ali koristeći druge istraživačke metode i na većem uzorku (85 zemalja) (Azman-Saini i Baharumshah i Law 2010).

Testirajući efekte SDI na ekonomski rast zemalja u razvoju, Borensztein i De Gregorio i Lee došli su do rezultata da SDI predstavljaju značajan faktor transfera tehnologija i da imaju procentualno veći udio u ekonomskom rastu od domaćih investicija (Borensztein i De Gregorio i Lee 1998). Sa druge strane, Pegkas je u svom istraživanju pokazao da postoji pozitivna dugoročna povezanost između SDI i ekonomskog rasta, kao i da iznos SDI ima pozitivan uticaj na ekonomski rast razvijenih zemalja Evrozone (Pegkas 2015). Takođe, analiza Lee i Dolfriandra došla je do istog zaključka, na primjeru zemalja ASEAN+3 (Lee i Dolfriandra 2020), kao i analiza Dinh i drugi 30 zemalja u razvoju (Dinh i drugi 2019).

Istraživajući uticaj SDI na ekonomski rast zemalja u razvoju Istočne Azije i Latinske Amerike Zhang je utvrdio da je uticaj SDI na ekonomski rast determinisan određenim karakteristikama zemalja, odnosno stepenom trgovinske liberalizacije, razvoja ljudskog kapitala i sistema obrazovanja (Zhang 2001). Takođe, analiza Li i Liu potvrdila je postojanje pozitivnog, direktnog i indirektnog, uticaja SDI na ekonomski rast i značajnih implikacija interakcije SDI i ljudskog kapitala na ekonomski rast (Li i Liu 2005). Rezultati istraživanja Nair-Reichert i Weinhold pokazali da je uticaj SDI na ekonomski rast pozitivan i konstantan u kratkom i dugom roku i povećava se sa većim stepenom otvorenosti ekonomije u zemljama u razvoju (Nair-Reichert i Weinhold 2001). Borensztein i De Gregorio i Lee su dobili slične rezultate u svojoj analizi (Borensztein i De Gregorio i Lee 1998).

Druga relevantna istraživanja (Lall i Narula 2004; Chowdhury i Mavrotas 2006; Meyer i Sinani 2009) potencirala su ključne faktore (stabilno političko, ekonomsko, regulatorno i institucionalno okruženje, veličina domaćeg tržišta, troškovi proizvodnje, potreban nivo tehnološkog razvoja domaćih kompanija zasnovanog na razvijenosti institucionalnog i regulatornog okvira i ljudskog kapitala u apsorbovanju SDI i znanja) u generisanju pozitivnog uticaja SDI.

Analiza Lyroudi i Papanastasiou i Vamvakidis su, istražujući uticaj SDI na ekonomski rast tranzicionih zemalja Centralne i Istočne Evrope, dokazali odsustvo korelacije između SDI i ekonomskog rasta (Lyroudi i Papanastasiou i Vamvakidis 2004). Mencinger je isto, u istraživanju tranzicionih zemalja Centralne i Istočne Evrope, došao do rezultata da SDI nema uticaj na ekonomski rast. Prema Mencingeru, fundamentalni cilj privlačenja SDI odnosi se na privatizaciju zasnovanu na politčkim direktivama, a ne investiranje u proizvodnju (Mencinger 2003). Grahovac i Trivanović, i Jakovljević, i Šinik došli su do istih rezultata u svojim istraživanjima, sa fokusom na uticaj SDI na generisanje izvoza (Grahovac i Trivanović i Jakovljević 2015; Šinik 2019). Šušić i Spasojević su u svom istraživanju dokazali postojanje statističke povezanosti i uticaja SDI na ekonomski rast srednje jačine u (Šušić i Spasojević 2016). Analizom 80 zemalja Durham je dokazao da SDI nemaju pozitivan uticaj na ekonomski rast (Durham 2004). Takođe i mnoga druga relevantna istraživanja (Herzer 2012; Feeny i Iamsiraroj i McGillivary 2014; Alvarado i Iñiguez i Ponce 2017; Gherghina i Simionescu i Hudea 2019) pokazale su postajanje negativne, slabe ili nelinearne veze između priliva SDI i ekonomskog rasta, mjeren BDP-om *per capita*.

2. STRANE DIREKTNE INVESTICIJE U REPUBICI SRPSKOJ

Kumulativna vrijednost priliva SDI u Republiku Srpsku u periodu 2004-2021. godine, prema podacima Centralne banke Bosne i Hercegovine (CBBiH) iznosi 5,9 milijardi KM. U navedenom vremenskom periodu, najveći priliv SDI u Republiku Srpsku bio je u 2007. godini, u iznosu od 1,9 milijardi KM (CBBiH 2022). Navedeni iznos SDI, kako navodi Ministarstvo privrede i preduzetništva (MPP) predstavljaju ulaganja sa ciljem preuzimanja vlasništva u preduzećima:

- Telekomunikacije Republike Srpske, Banja Luka (1,2 milijardi KM),
- Rafinerija nafte Brod (238,9 miliona KM),
- Rafinerija ulja Modriča (153,9 miliona KM),
- EFT Group Rudnik i Termoelektrana Stanari (208,5 miliona KM) (MPP 2016).

Najveći priliv SDI, do 2021. godine, bio je iz Srbije (2,1 milijardi KM), Italije (589,5 miliona KM), Velike Britanije (582,5 miliona KM), Austrije (530,5 milina KM) i Rusije (453,4 miliona KM). Na osnovu regionalne distribucije SDI, najveći broj novoregistrovanih privrednih subjekata sa elementima SDI je u Banjoj Luci, zatim u Bijeljini, Laktašima, Gradiški i Trebinju (CBBiH 2022).

Tabela 1. Makroekonomski parametri Republike Srpske, 2004-2021. godine (RZS 2022; CBBiH 2022)

	SDI (000 KM)	Zaposlenost	Izvoz (000 KM)	Industrijska proizvodnja (vrijednost prodaje) (000 KM)	BDP *per capita* (KM)
2004	314,700	184,905	840,920	1,573,191	3,528
2005	167,100	190,631	1,130,518	2,022,601	4,794
2006	133,100	194,325	1,540,236	2,282,377	5,527
2007	1,925,500	201,697	1,671,601	2,643,952	6,231
2008	302,100	200,862	1,921,837	3,244,280	7,211
2009	170,400	196,938	1,672,915	2,901,506	7,009
2010	205,100	182,204	2,177,809	3,414,962	7,086
2011	372,500	175,291	2,560,808	3,863,818	7,411
2012	403,600	172,384	2,374,737	5,031,670	7,343
2013	152,600	171,367	2,604,090	4,901,195	7,508
2014	379,100	173,160	2,692,013	5,184,797	7,615
2015	146,500	176,329	2,513,206	4,874,262	7,921
2016	84,500	182,766	2,865,332	5,138,048	8,320
2017	231,900	188,855	3,476,889	5,605,083	8,740
2018	316,800	193,149	3,741,165	5,984,231	9,304
2019	209,100	197,164	3,600,873	5,393,634	9,848
2020	285,100	198,196	3,387,398	5,190,064	9,797
2021	156,600	201,439	4,428,220	6,521,860	11,078

U sektorskoj strukturi SDI u periodu 2004-2021. godine dominantnu poziciju imaju investicije u sektor telekomunikacija, zatim u sektore finansijskih uslužnih djelatnosti, proizvodnje koksa, rafinisanih naftnih proizvoda i trgovine na veliko i na malo (MPP 2016). Navendena sektorska struktura je dominantna i uobičajena za tranzicione zemlje, jer najveći priliv SDI dolazi kroz proces privatizacije i restruktuisanja preduzeća i investiranje u ekstraktivne industrije. Karakteristika SDI u privatizaciji je da se u većini slučajeva odnose na priliv investicija s obzirom na tip preduzeća koji je predmet privatizacije. Primarni motivi navedenih investiranja, koji ne doprinose značajnijem efektu prelijevanja, predstavljaju tražnju za resursima, tržištem i imovinom preduzeća, ne uzimajući u obzir ekonomsko i političko okruženje.

U analiziranom periodu, priliv SDI primarno je motivisan pristupom tržištu Republike Srpske (sektori trgovina, telekomunikacije i građevinarstvo) i resursima (sektori rudarstvo i eksploatacija minerala, nekretnine), odnosno dominantnu poziciju imaju portfolio i *brownfield* investicije u odnosu na *greenfield* investicije.

U periodu 2004-2021. godine primjetni su različiti trendovi priliva SDI i generisanja industrijske proizvodnje, zaposlenosti i izvoza. Trend priliva SDI karakterišu blage amplitude rasta i pada, osim 2007. godine. Sa druge strane, prisutan je kontinuiran trend rasta industrijske proizvodnje, izvoza, zaposlenosti i BDP-a *per capita*, osim perioda uzrokovanog uticajem svjetske ekonomske krize. Direktna implikacija navedenih disperiteta trendova je da tokovi SDI, odnosno sektorski neusklađena investiranja nisu generisali akceleratorski efekat na indikatore ekonomskog rasta Republike Srpske.

3. METODE I PODACI

Predmet analize predstavlja ispitivanje uticaja stranih direktnih investicija na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Strane direktne investicije uticaj na ekonomski rast ostvaruju mehanizmom prelijevanja, odnosno uticajem na parcijalne komponente i, *summa summarum*, na bruto domaći prouzvod (u daljem tekstu: BDP). Odnosno, ulaganjem finansijskih sredstava SDI utiču na obim i vrijednost proizvodnje, tržište radne snage, izvoz, a navedeni indikatori predstavljaju integralnle komponente BDP-a. Ispitivanje navedenog mehanizma na ekonomski rast predstavlja fundamentalni cilj istraživanja.
Pošto investiranje u tekućoj godini proizvodi efekte u narednim godinama, analiziran je uticaj SDI na ekonomski rast, sa protokom dvije godine kao odgovarajućim vremenskim okvirom za uspostavljanje povezanosti između varijabli. Vremenski okvir istraživanja odnosi se na period 2004-2021. godine. Odnosno, analizira se uticaj SDI, u periodu od 18 godina (2004-2021. godine), na vrijednost industrijske proizvodnje, izvoza, zaposlenosti i BDP-a *per capita*, u periodu od 16 godina (2006-2021). U analizi su dostupni svi relevantni i reprezentativni podaci indikatora zavisne i nezavisne varijable. Statistički podaci za vrijednost priliva SDI, izvoza, industrijske proizvodnje, BDP-a *per capita* i broja zaposlenih preuzeti su iz baza podataka Republičkog zavoda za statistiku Republike Srpske (RZS) i Centralne Banke Bosne i Hercegovine.
Nezavisna varijabla u istraživanju su SDI u Republici Srpskoj. Mjerni pokazatelj nezavisne varijable u istraživanju je vrijednost priliva SDI. Ekonomski rast Republike Srpske predstavlja zavisnu varijablu u istraživanju. Analiziran je uticaj nezavisne varijable na indikatore koje čine, direktno ili indirektno, strukturu BDP-a, odnosno, vrijednost izvoza, industrijske proizvodnje i broj zaposlenih. Pored navedenih indikatora, analizirana je veza i uticaj nezavisne varijable na BDP *per capita*, kao kumulativan i reprezetativan indikator ekonomskog rasta. Mjerni pokazatelji zavisne varijable su vrijednost prodaje industrijske proizvodnje, izvoza, BDP-a *per capita* i broj zaposlenih. Od ukupnog broja zaposlenih, iz analize su izostavljeni zaposleni u „neproduktivnim“ djelatnostima, odnosno djelatnostima na koje SDI nisu imale direktni uticaj pa bi njihovim uključivanjem u model dobili rezultate sa nižim stepenom tačnosti, objektivnosti i reprezantativnosti. Prema podacima RZS, po područjima klasifikacionih djelatnosti, u analizu nisu inkorporirani zaposleni iz područja administrativne i pomoćne uslužne djelatnosti (N), javna uprava i odbrana; obavezno socijalno osiguranje (O), obrazovanje (P), djelatnosti zdravstvene zaštite i socijalnog rada (Q) i umjetnost, zabava i rekreacija (R) (RZS 2022).

4. REZULTATI ISTRAŽIVANJA

Zavisna varijabla u analizi je ekonomski rast, a kao reprezentativani indikatori determinisane su paricijalne komponente rasta (vrijednost prodaje industrijske proizvodnje, izvoza i broj zaposlenih) i kao kumulativna komponenta rasta (vrijednost BDP-a *per capita*). Strane direktne investicije predstavljaju nezavisnu varijablu, a kao indikator uzeta je vrijednost priliva SDI. Regresiona jednačina predstavljena je na sljedeći način:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \mathcal{E}$$

- Y- zavisna varijabla (izvoz, zaposlenost, industrijska proizvodnja, BDP *per capita*),
- X_j- nezavisna varijabla (SDI),

- $ß_0$- is Constant,
- $ß_1$- nepoznati parametar uz nezavisnu varijablu i
- $\mathcal{E}$- greška.

Ukupna vrijednost SDI u periodu 2004-2021. godine u Republici Srpskoj iznosila je 5,9 milijardi KM. U istom vremenskom periodu, generisana vrijednost izvoza iz Republike Srpske bila je 42,2 milijardi KM i industrijske proizvodnje 72,1 milijardi KM. Prosječna vrijednost SDI iznosila je 330,9 miliona KM, izvoza 2,7 milijardi KM, industrijske proizvodnje 4,5 milijardi KM, broja zaposlenih 187 hiljada i BDP-a *per capita* 7,9 hiljada KM. Vrijednost obilježja koja u targetiranoj seriji je najčešća, uzimajući u obzir svoje susjedne vrijednosti, za SDI iznosi 84,5 miliona KM, izvoz 1,5 milijardi KM, industrijsku proizvodnju 2,2 milijardi KM, zaposlenost 171 hiljada i BPD *per capita* 5,527 hiljada KM.

Tabela 2. Deskriptivna statistika (kalkulacija autora SPSS)

	Period	Ukupno	Aritmetička sredina	Medijana	Mod	Standardna greška procjene
SDI	18	5,956,300,000	330,905,000	220,500,000	84,500,000	409,054,986
Zaposlenost	16	3,006,126	187,882	191,002	171,367	11,454,144
Izvoz	16	43,229,129,000	2,701,820,000	2,582,449,000	1,540,236	836,293,487
Industrijska proizvodnja	16	72,175,739,000	4,510,983,000	4,966,432,000	2,282,377	1,273,354,602
BDP *per cpaita*	16	127,949	7,996	7,561	5,527	1,445,195

Regresionom analizom ispitivan je oblik i jačina veze između zavisne i nezavisne varijable. Osnovna istraživačka zamisao bila je da se analizom uticaja nezavisne varijable na zavisnu varijablu i inkorporiranjem više indikatora ekonomskog rasta, obezbijede odgovori sa većim stepenom objektivnosti i reprezentativnosti.

Pirsonov koeficijent korelacije pokazuje niske vrijednosti za sve indikatore zavisne varijable. Pritom, negativni predznak za indikatore vrijednost izvoza, industrijske proizvodnje i BDP-a *per capita* implicira da ne postoji statistički značajan uticaj SDI na indikatore ekonomskog rasta, odnosno da je rast uzrokovan uticajem drugih faktora, a ne relacija gdje negativne varijacije priliva SDI dovode do eksplicitnih pozitivnih vrijednosti indikatora ekonomskog rasta.

Vrijednost Pirsonovog koeficijenta za indikator broj zaposlenih od 0,26 pokazuje nisku korelaciju za vezu između navedenog indikatora i indikatora nezavisne varijable. Pozitivan predznak koeficijenta impilicira postojanje pozitivne linearne poveznanosti, mada ne velike jačine. Vrijednost Pirsonovog koeficijenta za ostale indikatore (vrijednost BDP-a *per capita*, izvoza i industrijske proizvodnje) pokazuje, takođe, postojanje niske korelacije, a negativan predznak na odsustvo statistički značajnog uticaja nezavisne varijable na zavisnu. Testirano je i prisustvo potencijalnog problema multikolinearnosti. Vrijednosti VIF koeficijenta (ispod 5) i tolerancije (iznad 0,25) impliciraju na nepostojanje multikolinearnosti.

Poslije testiranja jačine povezanosti zavisne i nezavisne varijable, analiziran je uticaj nezavisne varijable na zavisnu varijablu. Koeficijent determinacije ima niske vrijednosti za sve navedene indikatore. Direktna implikacija niske vrijednosti koeficijenta je da nezavisna varijabla objašnjava varijacije zavisne varijable u rasponu od 6,8% za indikator broj zaposlenih, 9,9% za vrijednost izvoza, 10,5% za BDP-a *per capita* i 12,9% za vrijednost industrijske proizvodnje. Statistički značajniji uticaj na varijacije zavisne varijable imaju drugi faktori, u rasponu od 93,2% za indikator broj zaposlenih, 90,1% za indikator vrijednost izvoza, 87,1% za vrijednost industrijske proizvodnje i 89,5% za vrijednost BDP-a *per capita.*

Tabela 3. Pregled regresione analize (kalkulacija autora SPSS)

Varijabla	Period	Pirsonov koeficijent korelacije	Koeficijent determinacije	Značajnost	Analiza varijanse (F test)
Zaposlenost	16	26,2%	6,8%	0,32	F(1,14)= 1,02; p >0,05
Izvoz	16	-31,5%	9,9%	0,11	F(1,14)= 1,54; p >0,05
Inudstrijska proizovdnja	16	-35,9%	12,9%	0,17	F(1,14)= 2,06; p >0,05
BDP *per capita*	16	-32,3%	10,5%	0,11	F(1,14)= 1,63; p >0,05

Nizak nivo signifikantosti putem F-testa (0,76 za indikator zaposlenost, 1,54 za indikator izvoz, 2,06 za indikator industrijska proizvodnja i 1,63 za indikator BDP *per capita*) implicira postojanje niskog nivoa eksplanatornog varijabiliteta. Ocijenjeni regresioni model nije adekvatan, što je vidljivo iz analize varijanse. Nezavisna varijabla ne predviđa dobro zavisnu varijablu, što znači veći nivo značajnosti od graničnih vrijednosti za sve indikatore zavisne varijable. Posmatranjem t vrijednosti i pridružene značajnosti, dolazi se do zaključka da nezavisna varijabla ne utiče na vrijednost zavisne varijable istraživanja. Pošto je p >0,05 za sve indikatore, navedeno implicira da uticaj nezavisne varijable na zavisnu nije relevantan za istraživanje. Na osnovu rezultata analize varijanse i posmatrane t vrijednosti i pridružene značajnosti može se prihvatiti hipoteza istraživanja, da strane direktne investicije, zbog neodgovarajuće sektorske strukture investiranja, nemaju značajan uticaj na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske.

Rezultat analize pokazao je nepostojanje uticaja i efekata priliva SDI na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Razlozi za slabu povezanost i determinisanost ekonomskog rasta prilivom SDI su, prije svega, neadekvatna sektorska struktura investiranja i dijelom politički motivisan proces privatizacije. Zatim, prisutan je dominantni trend *portfolio* i *brownfield* investiranja, u odnosu na *greenfield* investicije, koje predstavljaju motor ekonomskog rasta i razvoja. Takođe, značajno je naglasiti i uticaj repatrijacije porofita u zemlje porijekla investiranja, koji je značajno umanjio efekat investiranja. U sektorskoj strukturi investiranja, u analiziranom periodu, preovlađuju investiranja u sektor usluga i telekomunikacioni i bankarski sektor. Priliv SDI u periodu 2004-2021. godine ima kontinuiran trend, sa blagim amplitudama pada i rasta, osim visokog rasta u 2007. godini (1,9 milijardi KM u odnosu na 133 miliona KM u 2006. godini), zbog investicija u telekomunikacionom i naftnom sektoru, dok vrijednost industrijske proizvodnje, izvoza, BDP-a *per capita* i broj zaposlenih u istom periodu godine imaju trend kontinuiranog rasta, osim u periodu neposredno poslije svjetske ekonomske krize.

Neadekvatna sektorska struktura investiranja ne generiše pozitivan uticaj na proizvodnju, izvoz, a time i na BDP. Postojanje negativne veze između SDI i industrijske proizvodnje, izvoza i BDP-a *per capita* predstavlja logičku implikaciju neadekvatne sektorske strukture investiranja. Pri tome je potrebno naglasiti da negativna linearna relacija ne predstavlja prosti odnos gdje pad priliva SDI dovodi do rasta vrijednosti navedenih indikatora, već da priliv SDI ne generiše statistički značajan uticaj na rast vrijednosti industrijske proizvodnje, izvoza i BDP-a *per capita*. Statistički značajniji uticaj na pozitivne varijacije navedenih indikatora ekonomskog rasta imaju drugi faktori. Postojanje slabe pozitivne veze između SDI i broja zaposlenih reflektuje uticaj, mada ne veliki, priliva SDI na povećanje broja zaposlenih, posebno u sektorima trgovine, vađenja ruda i naftne industrije. Repatrijacija profita predstavlja značajan ograničavajući faktor pozitivnog efekta i uticaja SDI, prvenstveno zbog ograničenog uticaja na povećanje dohotka u Republici Srpskoj u odnosu na zemlje iz kojih investicije dolaze.

Na osnovu prethodno navedenog, zaključuje se da se osnovni problem investiranja u Republici Srpskoj odnosi na neadekvatnu sektorsku strukturu, koja nije u skladu sa etabliranim ekonomskim politikama. Da bi SDI generisale statistički značajnije efekte na indikatore ekonomskog rasta, potrebno je redefinisati politiku investranja, u skladu sa strateškim smjernicama razvoja i sektorskim politikama. Takođe, potrebno je i dodatno unaprijediti institucionalni i legislativni okvir i stvoriti mobilnije i konkurentnije tržište rada.

5. DISKUSIJA

Strane direktne investicije predstavljaju značajan faktor ekonomskog rasta i razvoja nerazvijenih i zemalja u razvoju. SDI služe kao „kanal“ posredstvom koga navedene zemlje dolaze do potrebnog finansijskog kapitala i pristupa savremenim tehnologijama, znanjima i vještinama, inovacijama i *know-how*. Pored vrijednosti i efikasnosti investiranja, bitan aspekt koji utiče na značaj i efekte investiranja odnosi se na motive za investiranje. Za razliku od navedenih teorijskih pretpostavki konvencionalnih modela, priliv SDI u Republiku Srpsku u analiziranom periodu bio je neadekvatno sektorski usmjeren i većinom vezan za politički motivisan proces privatizacije i zato nije generisao značajne efekte na ekonomski rast. Rezultati koji su dobijeni u istraživanju konzistentni su sa drugim uporedivim istraživanjima. Druga uporediva istraživanja, takođe, su se fokusirala na ulogu i značaj SDI u generisanju ekonomskog rasta zemalja u razvoju, ali sa izborom drugog pristupa i analitičkih metoda. Neka istraživanja su se fokusirala na makroekonomske (statičke) benefite SDI, druga na dinamičke benefite, a određena su kombinovala implikacije SDI u generisanju realnih pokazatelja rasta i obezbjeđenju faktora koje je kompleksnije kvantifikovati (tehnologija, znanje i vještine, inovacije, *know-how*).
Ovo istraživanje baziralo se na identifikovanju efekta i uticaja SDI na ekonomski rast, mjeren parcijalnim komponenetama i kumulativnim indikatorom, odnosno BDP-om *per capita.* Sa jedne strane, partikularna istraživanja (Zhang 2001; Nair-Reichert i Weinhold 2001; Bengoa i Sanchez-Robles 2003; Alfaro i drugi 2004; Li i Liu 2005, Marjanac i Grujić 2021) potvrdila su postojanje pozitivne veze između priliva SDI ekonomskog rasta zemalja u razvoju, uz pretpostavku postojanja dobro koncipirane ekonomske politike, otvorenosti nacionalne ekonomije, stabilnog političkog i makroekonomskog okruženja, razvijenosti finansijskih tržišta i ljudskog kapitala i dr.
Druga istraživanja (Mencinger 2003; Lyroudi i Papanastasiou i Vamvakidis 2004; Durham 2004; Herzer 2012; Feeny i Iamsiraroj i McGillivary 2014; Grahovac i Trivanović i Jakovljević 2015; Šušić i Spasojević 2016; Alvarado i Iñiguez i Ponce 2017; Gherghina i Simionescu i Hudea 2019; Šinik 2019) došla su do zaključaka da veza između priliva SDI i ekonomskog rasta zemalja u razvoju ne postoji ili je slaba, nelinearna i negativna.
Rezultati istraživanja i potvrđena hipoteza u radu kompatibilni su sa istraživanjima koja su utvrdila postojanje slabe veze i determinisanosti ekonomskog rasta varijacijama SDI. Rezultati istraživanja posebno su kompatibilni sa navedenim istraživanjima (Mencinger 2003; Grahovac i Trivanović i Jakovljević 2015; Šinik 2019). Međutim, ta istraživanja koristila su drugi analitički okvir. Djelimičan otklon od navedenih istraživanja ogleda se u izboru varijabli i analiziranju uticaja SDI na parcijalne komponente rasta (industrijska proizvodnja, izvoz i zaposlenost) i kumulativni i reprezentativni indikator rasta, odnosno BDP *per capita*.

ZAKLJUČAK

U ovom radu istraživan je uticaj SDI na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Odnosno, analiziran je uticaj i efekat SDI na parcijalne i integralni indikator ekonomskog rasta. Mnoga slična i uporediva istraživanja analizirali su uticaj SDI na ekonomski rast, ali sa primjenom drugog metodološkog okvira. Značaj i doprinos ovog istraživanja ogleda se u djelimičnom otklonu od konvencionalnih istraživanja u ovom pravcu. Fokus je stavljen na analizu uticaja SDI na komponente koje čine integralne elemente ekonomskog rasta i na BDP *per capita*, kao konvencionalnog indikatora ekonomskog rasta. Na taj način težilo se dobijanju rezultata sa većim stepenom objektivnosti, pouzdanosti i reprezentativnosti.
Istraživanje je sprovedeno u cilju dobijanja odgovora o ulozi i efektima SDI na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Rezultati istraživanja potvrdili su konstruisanu hipotezu da strane direktne investicije, zbog neodgovarajuće sektorske strukture investiranja, nemaju značajan uticaj na ekonomski rast Republike Srpske. Neadekvatna sektorska struktura investiranja predstavlja

primarni limitirajući faktor uticaja i efekata SDI na ekonomski rast. Naznačajniji priliv investicija je bio u sektorima telekomunikacija i naftne industrije i nije generisao pozitivne efekte zbog iskorišćavanja monopolskog položaja i repatrijacije profita. Takođe, značajno je naglasiti i uticaj politički motivisanog procesa privatizacije. To se, prije svega odnosi na kupovinu preduzeća iz društvene svojine zbog ostvarivanja benefita u pogledu lokacije, korišćenja i prodaje proizvodne opreme, dostupnih poslovnih i drugih objekata u Bosni i Hercegovini i zemljama okruženja.
Republika Srpska je u posmatranom vremenskom periodu privukla značajan iznos SDI. Iznos je mogao biti i veći, a razlozi za njihov izostanak su mnogobrojni. Kompleksno državno uređenje Bosne i Hercegovine, komplikovane administrativne procedure na državnom i entitetskom nivou, nemogućnost implementacije instrumenata monetarne i dijelom fiskalne politike, neadekvatan legislativni okvir i tržište rada, nekonzistentna poreska politika, korupcija, neefikasan rad pravosudnog sistema, predstavljaju ograničavajuće faktore većeg priliva i značajnijeg efekta SDI u targetiranom vremenskom periodu. Da bi se stvorilo stimulativno poslovno okruženje i pretpostavke značajnijeg priliva SDI, a time i većeg uticaja na ekonomski rast, potrebno je sprovesti reforme u institucionalnom i legislativnom okviru. Takođe, kreiranje stabilnog političkog i makroekonomskog okruženja, dobro koncipiranog zakonskog okvira i adekvatna sektorska struktura investiranja u skladu sa etabliranim ciljevima ekonomske politike predstavaju fundamentalne prediktore značajnijeg priliva i efikasnijeg korišćenja SDI, a time i generisanja ekonomskog rasta *ceteris paribus.*
Rezultati dobijeni u ovom istraživanju neće ponuditi konačan odgovor o ulozi, značaju i prediktorima pozitivnih efekata SDI u generisanju ekonomskog rasta. Neka istraživanja će potvrditi pozitivnu vezu i determinisanost ekonomskog rasta varijacijama SDI, dok će druga istraživanja osporavati navedenu ulogu, značaj i efekte. Navedena razlika ne predstavlja diferencijaciju u pogledu primjene analitičkog okvira, već u pristupu i pripadnosti određenim partikularnim ekonomskim doktrinama, gdje određena istraživanja potenciraju značaj statičkih (makroekonomskih) benefita, a druga, pored navedenih, i postojanje dinamičkih benefita. Ovo istraživanje je težilo da postavi analitički okvir koji će obezbijediti visok stepen objektivnosti, pouzdanosti i reprezentativnosti. Stoga, istraživanje sprovedeno u ovom radu, sa definisanim analitičkim okvirom, može poslužiti kao osnova za dalja istraživanja u ovom pravcu. Praznine u analitičkom okviru mogu se ispuniti sa uključivanjem dodatnih varijabli, u skladu sa dostupnim statističkim podacima, kako bi se dobili rezultati sa većim stepenom pouzdanosti, reprezentativnosti i objektivnosti.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 28/02/2023
The paper accepted: 09/06/2023

UDK 339.727.22:336.727.22(497.6RS)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330047M
COBISS.RS-ID 138850817
Original scientific paper

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FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENTS AND ECONOMIC GROWTH OF THE REPUBLIC OF SRPSKA: SPILLOVER EFFECT

Abstract: *This paper examines the influence of foreign direct investments on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska. The goal of the research is to show the scientific and professional public the mechanism of foreign direct investments in the function of growth and development, as well as the impact on targeted macroeconomic indicators. The research was conducted by analysing the relevant literature, using the deduction method and quantitatively calculating the impact of foreign direct investments on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska. Theoretical and empirical analysis aimed to provide an answer to the research problem, which is sublimated by the question: Do foreign direct investments have an impact on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska? The research results showed that there is no consistent connection and determination of the dependent variable with the variations of the independent research variable. That is, the cumulative value of the inflow of foreign direct investments didn't generate a statistically significant impact on macroeconomic indicators of economic growth. In this way, the hypothesis that foreign direct investments, due to the unfavourable sectorial structure of investments, do not have a significant impact on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska was confirmed. The contribution of the research is reflected in the choice of the analytical framework of the research and the obtained research results as a guideline for the creators of economic policies in the Republic of Srpska, in terms of factors that have a (de)stimulating influence on economic growth.*

Key words: *Foreign direct investments, economic growth, macroeconomic indicators, The Republic of Srpska*

JEL classification: *F21, F43, O10*

INTRODUCTION

Foreign direct investments (hereinafter: FDI) represent a form of international capital flows in which the investor wants to achieve a return on the investment and a decisive role in the management of the investment. To attract FDI, countries must implement political and economic reforms, and liberalize capital and trade flows. In addition, they need to create an efficient institutional framework with appropriate administrative capacities, as well as to provide protection of investors' rights, especially contractual rights, and intellectual property rights *de facto* and *de jure*. The tax system and tax policy must not be subject to continuous changes by political elites depending on the economic situation. Frequent changes in tax rates are the result of inconsistent tax policies and such countries lose credibility with potential investors. Macroeconomic stability implies the absence of significant fluctuations in the production sector, the trade balance and the labour market. The abovementioned factors constitute the most important components that create the conditions for the inflow of FDI and the generation of economic growth.

In the past 32 years, the Republic of Srpska has gone through the transformation of the economic system, from state-led to market-oriented. The beginning and later stages of the transition were characterized by technological backwardness, low productivity of labour and capital, and lack of knowledge and skills in the production process in relation to modern economic flows. The logical implication of the mentioned situation was the increased demand for foreign direct investments, as an instrument that can significantly influence economic growth.

The paper examines the influence and effect of FDI on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska. The research problem is determined by the question: Do FDI have an impact on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska? The research will prove the hypothesis that foreign direct investments, due to the unfavourable sectorial structure of investments, do not have a significant impact on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska. That is, the influence and role of foreign direct investments in generating economic growth and the positive effect on partial macroeconomic indicators of growth is not statistically significant.

After introductory part, the first part of the paper includes a theoretical-respective presentation, that is, an analysis of the relevant literature and previous research related to the research problem. In the second part, an overview of the inflow and structure of FDI in the Republic of Srpska is given, and in the third part, the methodological framework of the research is defined. The fourth part refers to the quantitative calculation of the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable and explains the research results. In the fifth part, the obtained research results were compared with another comparable research, and after that conclusion considerations were stated.

1. OVERVIEW OF PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Foreign direct investments are one of the ways for countries to generate economic growth by enabling, in addition to the cumulative increase in the amount of capital in the economy, access to modern technologies, innovations and knowledge, thereby increasing productivity and real incomes. Foreign direct investments represent a significant instrument of economic growth and development, especially in underdeveloped and developing countries. The volume and effect of investing in a country depend on a large number of factors that are incorporated into the economic and political system. In order for FDI to have an impact on economic growth, a synergy of political and economic decision-makers is needed in order to create a stimulating environment in which investments will generate benefits for the national economy *ceteris paribus*.

Most of the empirical research on the impact of FDI on economic growth is based on the existence of certain assumptions and the satisfaction of certain economic laws. That is, the commitment of political elites as decision-makers at the national level, the development of the institutional, administrative and legislative framework, and the degree of liberalization of economic flows and market mechanisms are emphasized. Also, the effects and implications of being motivated to invest in developing countries are highlighted. All good practices of developing countries have the same or similar theoretical and implementation matrix. Deviation from the stated assumptions reduces the effect and significance of the investment, regardless of the cumulative value of the investment.

The analysis of Alfaro et al. showed that FDI has a significant influence in economic growth. Also, level of development of local financial markets is crucial for positive effects (Alfaro et al. 2004, 22). In addition, the influence of investment also depends on the favourable business climate, the political and economic framework, size of the market and trade balance (Tsai 1994;

Balasubramanyam and Salisu and Sapsford 2006). Similar results were obtained by Marjanac and Grujić, who determined that the most significant predictors of positive effects of FDI on the economic growth of developing countries are the political and economic environment and the corresponding institutional and legislative framework (Marjanac and Grujić 2021) .

Research by Barrell and Pain showed that FDI indirectly affects the targeted macroeconomic parameters and that they are a significant channel for the spread of technologies (Barrell and Pain 1997). Examining the relationship between FDI, economic growth and economic freedom, on the example of 18 Latin American countries, Bengoa and Sanchez-Robles came to the conclusion that there is a positive correlation between FDI and the economic growth of the host country, and that the growth of economic freedom has a positive effect on inflow of FDI. (Bengoa and Sanchez-Robles 2003). Azman-Saini and Baharumshah and Law obtained the same results but using a different research methods and on a larger sample (85 countries) (Azman-Saini and Baharumshah and Law 2010).

Testing the effects of FDI on the economic growth of developing countries, Borensztein and De Gregorio and Lee came to the conclusion that FDI represents a significant factor of technology transfer and that it has a percentage higher share in economic growth than domestic investments (Borensztein and De Gregorio and Lee 1998). On the other hand, Pegkas showed in his research that there is a positive long-term connection between FDI and economic growth, as well as that the amount of FDI has a positive influence on the economic growth of developed Eurozone countries (Pegkas 2015). Also, the analysis of Lee and Dolfriandra came to the same conclusion, on the example of ASEAN+3 countries (Lee and Dolfriandra 2020), as well as an analysis by Dinh et al. of 30 developing countries (Dinh et al. 2019).

Investigating the impact of FDI on the economic growth of developing countries in East Asia and Latin America, Zhang determined that the influence of FDI on economic growth is determined by certain characteristics of countries, namely political and economic stability, the degree of trade liberalization and the development of human capital and education system (Zhang 2001). Also, the analysis of Li and Liu confirmed the existence of a positive, direct and indirect, impact of FDI on economic growth, and significant implications of the interaction of FDI and human capital on economic growth (Li and Liu 2005). The results of research by Nair-Reichert and Weinhold showed the impact of FDI on economic growth is positive and constant in the short and long term and increases with a greater degree of openness of the economy in developing countries (Nair-Reichert and Weinhold 2001). Borensztein and De Gregorio and Lee obtained similar results in their analysis (Borensztein and De Gregorio and Lee 1998).

Other relevant research (Lall and Narula 2004; Chowdhury and Mavrotas 2006; Meyer and Sinani 2009), emphasized key factors (stable political, economic, regulatory and institutional environment, size of the domestic market and costs of production, the necessary level of technological development of domestic companies, based on the development of the institutional and regulatory framework and human capital in absorbing FDI and knowledge) in generating a positive impact of FDI.

The Analysis of Lyroudi and Papanastasiou and Vamvakidis, investigated the impact of FDI on the economic growth of transition countries in Central and Eastern Europe and proved a correlation absence between FDI and economic growth (Lyroudi and Papanastasiou and Vamvakidis 2004). Mencinger also, in a study of Central and Eastern European transition countries, came to the conclusion that FDI does not affect economic growth. According to Mencinger, the fundamental goal for attracting FDI is privatization based on political directives and not an investment in the production (Mencinger 2003). Grahovac and Trivanović and Jakovljević, and Šinik came to the same results in their research, focusing on the impact of FDI on export generation (Grahovac and Trivanović and Jakovljević 2015; Šinik 2019). In their research, Šušić and Spasojević proved the existence of a statistical connection and impact of FDI on medium-sized economic growth (Šušić and Spasojević 2016). Through an analysis of 80 countries, Durham proved that FDI doesn't have a positive influence on economic growth (Durham 2004). Also, many other relevant studies (Herzer 2012; Feeny and Iamsiraroj and McGillivary 2014; Alvarado and Iñiguez and Ponce 2017; Gherghina and Simionescu and Hudea 2019) showed the existence of a non-linear, low and negative relationship between FDI inflows and economic growth, measured by GDP *per capita*.

2. FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF SRPSKA

Cumulative value of FDI inflows in the Republic of Srpska in the period 2004-2021, according to data from the Central Bank of Bosnia and Herzegovina (CBBH), amounts to 5,9 billion BAM. In the mentioned time period, the largest inflow of FDI into the Republic of Srpska was in 2007, in the amount of 1,9 billion BAM (CBBH 2022). The stated amount of FDI, as stated by the Ministry of Economy and Entrepreneurship (MEE), represents investments with the aim of taking ownership in companies:

- Telecommunications of the Republic of Srpska Banja Luka (1,2 billion BAM),
- Oil Refinery Brod (238,9 million BAM),
- Oil Refinery Modriča (153,9 million BAM),
- EFT Group Mine and Thermal Power Plant Stanari (208,5 million BAM) (MEE 2016).

The largest inflow of FDI until 2021 was from Serbia (2,1 billion BAM), Italy (589,5 million BAM), Great Britain (582,5 million BAM), Austria (530,5 million BAM) and Russia (453,4 million BAM). Based on the regional distribution of FDI, the largest number of newly registered business entities with FDI elements is in Banja Luka, followed by Bijeljina, Laktaši, Gradiška and Trebinje (CBBH 2022).

Table 1. Macroeconomic indicators of the Republic of Srpska, 2004-2021 (RSIS 2022; CBBH 2022)

	FDI (000 BAM)	Employment	Export (000 BAM)	Industrial production (Value of sale) (000 BAM)	GDP *per capita* (BAM)
2004	314,700	184,905	840,920	1,573,191	3,528
2005	167,100	190,631	1,130,518	2,022,601	4,794
2006	133,100	194,325	1,540,236	2,282,377	5,527
2007	1,925,500	201,697	1,671,601	2,643,952	6,231
2008	302,100	200,862	1,921,837	3,244,280	7,211
2009	170,400	196,938	1,672,915	2,901,506	7,009
2010	205,100	182,204	2,177,809	3,414,962	7,086
2011	372,500	175,291	2,560,808	3,863,818	7,411
2012	403,600	172,384	2,374,737	5,031,670	7,343
2013	152,600	171,367	2,604,090	4,901,195	7,508
2014	379,100	173,160	2,692,013	5,184,797	7,615
2015	146,500	176,329	2,513,206	4,874,262	7,921
2016	84,500	182,766	2,865,332	5,138,048	8,320
2017	231,900	188,855	3,476,889	5,605,083	8,740
2018	316,800	193,149	3,741,165	5,984,231	9,304
2019	209,100	197,164	3,600,873	5,393,634	9,848
2020	285,100	198,196	3,387,398	5,190,064	9,797
2021	156,600	201,439	4,428,220	6,521,860	11,078

In the sectoral structure of FDI in the period 2004-2021, the dominant position is held by investments in the telecommunications sector, followed by financial services, production of coke and refined petroleum products, and wholesale and retail trade MEE (2016). The mentioned sectorial structure is dominant and common for transition countries because the largest inflow of FDI comes through the process of privatization and restructuring of companies, and investment in extractive industries. The characteristic of FDI in privatization is that, in most cases, it refers to the inflow of investments with regard to the type of company that is the subject of privatization. The primary motives of the mentioned investments, which do not contribute to a significant spill over effect, represent the demand for resources, the market and the company's assets, without taking into account the economic and political environment.

In the analysed period, the inflow of FDI is primarily motivated by access to the Republic of Srpska market (Trade, Telecommunications and Construction sectors) and resources (Mining and mineral exploitation sectors, Real Estate), that is, portfolio and brownfield investments have a dominant position compared to Greenfield investments.

In the period 2004-2021 different trends in FDI inflows and the generation of industrial production, employment and exports are noticeable. The trend of FDI inflows is characterized by mild growth and decline amplitudes, except for 2007. On the other hand, there is a continuous trend of growth in industrial production, exports, employment and GDP *per capita*, except for the period caused by the impact of the global economic crisis. The direct implication of the aforementioned disparity of trends is that FDI flows, that is, sectorial mismatched investments, did not generate an accelerator effect on the economic growth indicators of the Republic of Srpska.

3. METHODS AND DATA

The subject of the analysis is the examination of the impact of foreign direct investments on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska. Foreign direct investments have an impact on economic growth through the spill over mechanism, i.e. impact on partial components and, *summa summarum*, on gross domestic product (hereinafter: GDP). That is, by investing financial resources, FDI affects the volume and value of production, the labour market, exports, and the mentioned indicators represent integral components of GDP. Examining the impact of the mentioned mechanism on economic growth represents the fundamental goal of the research.

Since investing in the current year produces effects in the following years, the impact of FDI on economic growth was analysed, with the passage of two years as the appropriate time frame for establishing the connection between the variables. The research analyses the connections and the influence of the dependent variable on the independent variable, in the case of an entity that is part of a country that, according to the M49 classification of the United Nations, belongs to the group of developing countries (UN 2022). The time frame of the research refers to the period 2004-2021, that is, the impact of FDI in a period of 18 years (2004-2021) on the value of industrial production, exports, employment and GDP *per capita*, in a period of 16 years (2006-2021), is analysed. All relevant and representative data of indicators of dependent and independent variables are available in the analysis. Statistical data for the value of FDI inflows, exports, industrial production, GDP *per capita* and the number of employees were taken from the databases of the Republic of Srpska Institute of Statistics (RSIS) and the Central Bank of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The independent variable in the research is FDI in the Republic of Srpska. The measurement indicator of the independent variable in the research is the value of the FDI inflow. The economic growth of the Republic of Srpska is a dependent variable in the research. The influence of the independent variable on the indicators that make up, directly or indirectly, the structure of the GDP, that is, the value of exports, industrial production and the number of employees, is analysed. In addition to the above indicators, the connection and influence of the independent variable on GDP *per capita* are analysed, as a cumulative and representative indicator of economic growth. The measurement indicators of the dependent variable are the value of sales of industrial production, exports, GDP *per capita* and the number of employees. From the total number of employees, employees in "non-productive" activities, i.e. activities on which FDI did not have a direct impact, were omitted from the analysis, therefore, including them in the model would result in a lower degree of accuracy, objectivity and representativeness. According to the data of the RSIS, by areas of classification activities, employees from the areas of Administrative and auxiliary service activities (N), Public Administration and Defence; compulsory social security (O), Education (P), Health care and social work activities (Q) and Arts, entertainment and recreation (R), were not included in the analysis (RSIS 2022).

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

The dependent variable in the analysis is economic growth, while the partial components of growth (value of sales of industrial production, exports and number of employees) and the cumulative component of growth (value of GDP *per capita*) were determined as representative indicators. Foreign direct investments represent an independent variable, and the value of FDI inflow was taken as an indicator. The regression is presented as follows:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \mathcal{E}$$

- Y- the dependent variable (Exports, Employment, Industrial Production, GDP *per capita*)
- X_1- the independent variable (FDI)
- β_0- Constant
- β_1- an unknown parameter in addition to the independent variable
- $\mathcal{E}$ - an error

The total value of FDI in the period 2004-2021 in the Republic of Srpska amounted to 5,9 billion BAM. In the same time period, the generated value of exports from the Republic of Srpska was 42,2 billion BAM, and industrial production was 72,1 billion BAM. The average value of FDI was 330,9 million BAM, exports 2,7 billion BAM, industrial production 4,5 billion BAM, number of employees 187 thousand and GDP *per capita* 7,9 thousand BAM. The value of the feature that is the most common in the targeted series, taking into account its neighbouring values, for FDI is 84,5 million BAM, export 1,5 billion BAM, industrial production 2,2 billion BAM, employment 171 thousand and GDP per capita 5,527 thousand BAM.
Regression analysis was used to examine the form and strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The basic research idea was to provide answers with a higher degree of objectivity and representativeness by analysing the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable, and by incorporating several indicators of economic growth.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics (Author's calculation SPSS software package)

	Period	Total	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard error of the estimate
FDI	18	5,956,300,000	330,905,000	220,500,000	84,500,000	409,054,986
Employment	16	3,006,126	187,882	191,002	171,367	11,454,144
Exports	16	43,229,129,000	2,701,820,000	2,582,449,000	1,540,236	836,293,487
Industrial production	16	72,175,739,000	4,510,983,000	4,966,432,000	2,282,377	1,273,354,602
GDP *per capita*	16	127,949	7,996	7,561	5,527	1,445,195

The Pearson correlation coefficient shows low values for all indicators of the dependent variable. At the same time, the negative sign for the indicators of the value of exports, industrial production and GDP *per capita* implies that there is no statistically significant impact of FDI on the indicators of economic growth, that is, that growth is caused by the influence of other factors, and not by the relation where negative variations in the inflow of FDI lead to explicit positive values of economic growth indicators.

Table 3. Overview of regression analysis (Author's calculation SPSS software package)

Variable	Period	Pearson correlation coefficient	Coefficient of determination	Significance	Analysis of variance (F test)
Employment	16	26,2%	6,8%	0,32	F(1,14)= 1,02; p> 0,05
Exports	16	-31,5%	9,9%	0,11	F(1,14)= 1,54; p> 0,05
Industrial production	16	-35,9%	12,9%	0,17	F(1,14)= 2,06; p> 0,05
GDP *per capita*	16	-32,3%	10,5%	0,11	F(1,14)= 1,63; p> 0,05

The value of the Pearson coefficient for the number of employees indicator of 0,26 shows a low correlation for the relationship between the mentioned indicator and the indicator of the independent variable. The positive sign of the coefficient implies the existence of a positive linear relationship, although not of great strength. The value of the Pearson coefficient for other indicators (value of GDP *per capita*, exports and industrial production) also shows the existence of a low correlation and a negative sign on the absence of a statistically significant influence of the independent variable on the dependent one. The presence of a potential multi-co-linearity problem was also tested. The value of the VIF coefficient (below 5) and the tolerance (above 0,25) imply the absence of multi-co-linearity. After testing the strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable was analysed. The coefficient of determination has low values for all the mentioned indicators. The direct implication of the low value of the coefficient is that the independent variable explains the variation of the dependent variable in the range of 6,8% for the indicator number of employees, 9,9% for the value of exports, 10,5% for GDP *per capita* and 12,9% for the value of industrial production. Other factors have a statistically significant influence on the variations of the dependent variable, in the range of 93,2% for the indicator number of employees, 90,1% for the indicator value of exports, 87,1% for the value of industrial production and 89,5 for the value of GDP *per capita*.

A low level of significance through the F-test (0,76 for the employment indicator, 1,54 for the exports indicator, 2,06 for the industrial production indicator and 1,63 for the GDP *per capita* indicator) implies the existence of a low level of explanatory variability. The estimated regression model is not adequate, which is evident from the analysis of variance. The independent variable does not predict the dependent variable well, which means a higher significance level than the threshold values for all indicators of the dependent variable. By observing the t value and the associated significance, the conclusion is reached that the independent variable does not affect the value of the dependent variable of the research. Since p> 0.05 for all indicators, this implies that the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable is not relevant for the research. Based on the results of the variance analysis and the observed t value and the associated significance, the research hypothesis can be accepted, that foreign direct investments, due to the unfavourable sectorial structure of investments, do not have a significant impact on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska.

The result of the analysis showed the absence of influence and effects of FDI inflow on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska. The reasons for the weak connection and determination of economic growth by the inflow of FDI are, first of all, the inadequate sectorial structure of investment, and partly, the politically motivated process of privatization. Then, there is a dominant trend of portfolio and brownfield investments, compared to Greenfield investments, which represent the engine of economic growth and development. Also, it is important to emphasize the impact of the repatriation of profits to the countries of origin of the investment, which significantly reduced the effect of the investment. In the sectorial structure of investments, in the analysed period, investments in the service sector and the telecommunications and banking sectors prevail. FDI inflow in the period 2004-2021 has a continuous trend, with mild amplitudes of decline and growth, except for high growth in 2007 (1,9 billion BAM compared to 133 million BAM in 2006), due to investments in the telecommunications and oil sectors, while the value of industrial production, exports, GDP *per capita* and the number of employees in the same period of the year have a trend of continuous growth, except in the period immediately after the global economic crisis.

Inadequate sectorial investment structure does not generate a positive impact on production, exports, and thus on GDP. The existence of a negative relationship between FDI and industrial production, exports and GDP *per capita* is a logical implication of an inadequate sectorial investment structure. It should be emphasized that the negative linear relationship does not represent a simple relationship where the decrease in the FDI inflow leads to an increase in the value of the mentioned indicators, but that the FDI inflow does not generate a statistically significant impact on the growth in the value of industrial production, exports and GDP *per capita*. Other factors have a statistically significant influence on the positive variations of the mentioned indicators of economic growth. The existence of a weak positive relationship between FDI and the number of employees reflects the impact, although not large, of FDI inflows on the increase in the number of employees, especially in the trade sectors, mining and oil industry. Repatriation of profits represents a significant limiting factor of the positive effect and impact of FDI, primarily due to the limited impact on increasing income in the Republic of Srpska compared to the countries from which the investments come.

Based on the above, it is concluded that the main problem of investing in the Republic of Srpska is related to an inadequate sectorial structure, which is not in accordance with established economic policies. In order for FDI to generate statistically significant effects on economic growth indicators, it is necessary to redefine investment policy, in accordance with strategic development guidelines and sectorial policies. It is also necessary to further improve the institutional and legislative framework and create a more mobile and competitive labour market.

5. DISCUSSION

Foreign direct investments represent a significant factor in the economic growth and development of underdeveloped and developing countries. FDI serves as a "channel" through which these countries get the necessary financial capital and access to modern technologies, knowledge and skills, innovations and know-how. In addition to the value and efficiency of investing, an important aspect that affects the importance and effects of investing is related to the motives for investing. In contrast to the stated theoretical assumptions of conventional models, the inflow of FDI to the Republic of Srpska in the analysed period was inadequately sector-oriented and mostly related to the politically motivated process of privatization, and therefore did not generate significant effects on economic growth. The results obtained in the research are consistent with other comparable research. Other comparable researches have also focused on the role and importance of FDI in generating economic growth in developing countries, but with the choice of a different approach and analytical methods. Some research focused on the macroeconomic (static) benefits of FDI, others on dynamic benefits, and some combined the implications of FDI

in generating real growth indicators and providing factors that are more complex to quantify (technology, knowledge and skills, innovations, know-how).
This research was based on identifying the effect and impact of FDI on economic growth, measured by partial components and a cumulative indicator, i.e. GDP *per capita*. On the one hand, particular research (Zhang 2001; Nair-Reichert and Weinhold 2001; Bengoa and Sanchez-Robles 2003; Alfaro et al. 2004; Li and Liu 2005, Marjanac and Grujić 2021) confirmed the existence of a positive relationship between the inflow of FDI and the economic growth of developing countries, assuming the existence of a well-conceived economic policy, the openness of the national economy, a stable political and macroeconomic environment, the development of financial markets and human capital, etc.
Other research (Mencinger 2003; Lyroudi and Papanastasiou and Vamvakidis 2004; Durham 2004; Herzer 2012; Feeny and Iamsiraroj and McGillivary 2014; Grahovac and Trivanović and Jakovljević 2015; Šušić and Spasojević 2016; Alvarado and Iñiguez and Ponce 2017; Gherghina and Simionescu and Hudea 2019; Šinik 2019) came to the conclusion that the relationship between FDI inflows and economic growth of developing countries does not exist, or is weak, non-linear and negative.
The results of the research and the confirmed hypothesis in the paper are compatible with the research that established the existence of a weak connection and the determination of economic growth by variations in FDI. The results of the research are particularly compatible with the research of Mencinger (2003), Grahovac and Trivanović and Jakovljević (2015), and Šinik (2019). However, the aforementioned studies used a different analytical framework. A partial departure from the aforementioned research is reflected in the choice of variables and the analysis of the impact of FDI on the partial components of growth (industrial production, exports and employment) and the cumulative and representative indicator of growth, that is, GDP *per capita*.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, the influence of FDI on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska was investigated. That is, the influence and effect of FDI on the partial and integral indicators of economic growth were analysed. Many similar and comparable studies have analysed the impact of FDI on economic growth, but with the application of a different methodological framework. The importance and contribution of this research is reflected in the partial departure from conventional research in this direction. The focus is on the analysis of the impact of FDI on components that are integral elements of economic growth, and on GDP *per capita*, as a conventional indicator of economic growth. In this way, the aim was to obtain results with a higher degree of objectivity, reliability and representativeness.
The research was conducted in order to obtain answers about the role and effects of FDI on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska. The research results confirmed the constructed hypothesis that foreign direct investments, due to the unfavourable sectorial structure of investments, do not have a significant impact on the economic growth of the Republic of Srpska. Inadequate sectorial structure of investment represents the primary limiting factor of the impact and effects of FDI on economic growth. The most significant inflow of investments was in the telecommunications and oil industry sectors and did not generate positive effects due to the exploitation of the monopoly position and the repatriation of profits. It is also important to emphasize the impact of the politically motivated privatization process. This primarily refers to the purchase of state-owned enterprises in order to achieve benefits in terms of location, use and sale of production equipment, available business and other facilities in Bosnia and Herzegovina and surrounding countries.
The Republic of Srpska attracted a significant amount of FDI in the observed time period. The amount could have been higher, and the reasons for their absence are numerous. The complex

state organization of Bosnia and Herzegovina, complicated administrative procedures at the state and entity level, the impossibility of implementing monetary and partly fiscal policy instruments, inadequate legislative framework and the labour market, inconsistent tax policy, corruption, inefficient work of the judicial system, represent limiting factors for a greater inflow and significant effect of FDI in the targeted time period. In order to create a stimulating business environment and the assumptions of a more significant inflow of FDI, and thus a greater impact on economic growth, it is necessary to implement reforms in the institutional and legislative framework. Also, the creation of a stable political and macroeconomic environment, a well-conceived legal framework and an adequate sectoral structure of investment in accordance with the established goals of economic policy, represent fundamental predictors of a significant inflow and more efficient use of FDI, and thus the generation of economic growth *ceteris paribus*.

The results obtained in this research will not offer a definitive answer about the role, significance and predictors of the positive effects of FDI in generating economic growth. Some research will confirm the positive connection and determination of economic growth by FDI variations, while other research will dispute the stated role, importance and effects. The mentioned difference does not represent a differentiation with regard to the application of the analytical framework, but rather in the approach and belonging to certain particular economic doctrines, where certain research emphasizes the importance of static (macroeconomic) benefits and others, in addition to the above, the existence of dynamic benefits. This research sought to establish an analytical framework that would ensure a high degree of objectivity, reliability and representativeness. Therefore, the research conducted in this paper, with a defined analytical framework, can serve as a basis for further research in this direction. Gaps in the analytical framework can be filled with the inclusion of additional variables, in accordance with available statistical data, in order to obtain results with a higher degree of reliability, representativeness and objectivity.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 06.02.2023.
Rad odobren: 09.02.2023.

UDK 331.105.24:159.923.075
DOI 10.7251/POS2330061V
COBISS.RS-ID 138847745
Originalan naučni rad

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UTICAJ DIMENZIJA LIČNOSTI NA PONAŠANJE ZAPOSLENIH I RADNU UČINKOVITOST

Rezime: *Ljudski resursi predstavljaju veliki potencijal svake kompanije, dok način na koji se sa njima upravlja postaje odlučujući faktor konkurentske prednosti i daljeg razvoja kompanije. U fokusu savremenog menadžmenta ljudskih resursa treba biti koncept dimenzija ličnosti zaposlenih, kako bi se dobio odgovor na pitanja šta pokreće, podstiče i motiviše zaposlene na veći radni učinak, kao i na koji način uskladiti lične vrednosti sa vrednostima organizacije. Samim tim, cilj istraživanja je usmeren na identifikovanje načina na koji dimenzije ličnosti zaposlenih utiču na njihovo ponašanje, zadovoljstvo poslom i karijerom, kao i stepen njihove angažovanosti na radnom mestu. Naučno-istraživački karakter ovog rada počiva na analizi relevantne naučne literature i savremenih izvora korišćenjem metode ispitivanja, metode analize, metode komparacije, metode deskripcije i metode dedukcije. Analiza rezultata primarnog istraživanja potvrdila je da postizanje ravnoteže između karakteristika ličnosti zaposlenih, motivacionih faktora i vrednosti organizacije predstavlja osnovu za povećanje radne učinkovitosti zaposlenih, stvaranje koncepta lojalnosti zaposlenih i ostvarivanje konkurentske prednosti na tržištu.*

Ključne reči: *ličnost, radno ponašanje, učinkovitost, MLJR*

JEL klasifikacija: *M54, O15, M12, D23*

UVOD

Izazovi savremenih kompanija, uz imperativ postizanja strateških ciljeva kompanije, u sebi uključuju i problematiku kreiranja uslova u kojima će se kompanija prilagoditi pojedincu kao individui, a ne pojedinac kompaniji. To znači da kompanija treba da omogući pozitivne promene u znanju, veštinama, ponašanju i stavovima zaposlenih, koje će uticati na performanse zaposlenih na poslu, a koje na taj način poboljšane, doprinose sveopštim performansama kompanije, kao i stvaranju pozitivne organizacione klime. Postavlja se pitanje na koji način stvoriti uslove u kojima se nivo ličnih vrednosti i karakteristika zaposlenih podudara sa vrednostima i ciljevima kompanije, a da se pritom osigura visoka učinkovitost kompanije s kvalitetnim proizvodima i uslugama, koji su proizvod visokomotivisane radne snage? Da bi se dobio odgovor na postavljeno pitanje, u radu je spovedena analiza istraživanja uticaja dimenzija ličnosti zaposlenih na radno ponašanje i učinkovitost. Korišćena je metoda ispitivanja, koja je sprovedena popunjavanjem anketnog upitnika tokom oktobra 2022. godine. Anketa je bila anonimna i sprovedena je na 100 ispitanika iz različitih gradova na teritoriji Bosne i Hercegovine. Upitnik se sastojao od 15 pitanja, od kojih se četiri odnosilo na demografske karakteristike ispitanika, a ostalih jedanaest pitanja su se odnosila na temu ispitivanja. U skladu sa navedenim, definisana je hipoteza da postizanje ravnoteže između karakteristika ličnosti zaposlenih, motivacionih faktora i vrednosti organizacije predstavlja osnovu za povećanje radne učinkovitosti zaposlenih, stvaranje koncepta lojalnosti zaposlenih i ostvarivanje konkurentske prednosti na tržištu.

1. TEORIJSKI OKVIR ISTRAŽIVANJA

U modernoj organizacionoj psihologiji i menadžmentu ljudskih resursa, kao tipologija ličnosti opšte je prihvaćen model „Velikih pet", koji uključuje sledeće dimenzije: neuroticizam, ekstraverziju, otvorenost, ugodnost i savesnost (Teryima Sev 2019). Neuroticizam karakterišu neugodne emocije poput ljutnje, teskobe i depresije. Ekstraverzija uključuje druželjubivost, energičnost, pričljivost, traženje novih iskustava i društvenih veza koje omogućavaju interakciju s drugim ljudima (Salgado 2002). Otvorenost je osobina ličnosti koja označava spremnost za prihvatanje novih ideja i iskustva, intelektualnu radoznalost, preferenciju različitosti, potrebu za promenom i nezavisnost mišljenja. Ugodnost karakterišu kooperativnost, pristojnost, ljubaznost i prijateljstvo (Judge i drugi 2013). Savesnost odražava tendenciju da se bude odgovoran, organizovan, marljiv, usmeren prema cilju uz pridržavanje normi i pravila (Chiaburu i drugi 2011). Tokom poslednjih petnaest godina, postoji veliki broj dokaza da komponente „Velikih pet" daju dobru predikciju radnog postignuća, kao i da su kao takve veoma korisne u procesu selekcije zaposlenih i predviđanju kontekstualne performanse i organizaciono građansko ponašanje (Babar i Tahir 2020).
Uz neke od kritika upućene modelu „Velikih pet", navodi se i kritika da s tim modelom nisu obuhvaćene „loše osobine" i mračna strana ličnosti (Spain i Harms i LeBreton 2014). Zbog toga se javila potreba za istraživanjem tamnijih strana ličnosti. Mračna trijada, koja uključuje makijavelizam, narcisoidnost i psihopatiju, pokazala se učinkovitijom u predviđanju negativnih ishoda radnog ponašanja od modela „Velikih pet" (Youli i Chao 2015). Mračna trijada uključuje ponašanja koja imaju tendenciju samopromocije, emocionalne hladnoće i agresivnosti (McLarty i drugi 2021). Za makijaveliste se može reći da žive po poslovici „U ljubavi i ratu, sve je dopušteno", budući da vrlo često iskorišćavaju i manipulišu druge kako bi ostvarili vlastiti cilj. Vrlo su prilagodljivi i spremni na saradnju ukoliko to znači da će doći do svog cilja. Imaju visoku želju za manipulacijom i laganjem, ali ne znači uvek da imaju sposobnosti izvoditi te radnje. Narcisoidna ličnost je izuzetno grandiozna i ističe svoju dominaciju (Wallace i Baumeister 2002). Narcisoidni su pojedinci jako uspešni u promovisanju samih sebe budući da su izuzetno pričljivi. U drugima vide pretnju za svoj ego, zbog toga se često postavljaju superiornije (Hong i Emagnaw 2019). Karakteristike psihopatske ličnosti uključuju visoku impulsivnost, traženje uzbuđenja i nizak nivo empatije i anksioznosti (Paulhus i Williams 2002). Takve osobe ne iskazuju osećaj krivice i grižnje savesti pa se zbog toga čine hladnima i distanciranima. Ali, mračna trijada podrazumeva i neke popularne karakteristike kao što su šarm, dobro liderstvo, hrabrost prilikom ulaska u rizične odluke i socijalne veštine. Vrlo su vešti u prikrivanju svojeg pravog lica pa se na prvu čine kao izuzetni radnici, ali dužim provođenjem vremena s njima, drugi uviđaju o kakvim se osobama radi.

Istraživanja su pokazala i neke poveznice između dimenzija modela „Velikih pet" i mračne trijade, pa O' Boyle i saradnici navode kako su narcisoidnost i psihopatija pozitivno povezane s dimenzijom ekstraverzije i otvorenosti ka iskustvu (O' Boyle i drugi 2012). Zahvaljujući svom šarmu i pričljivosti, takvi pojedinci stvaraju širok krug poznanika i ostvaruju veliku socijalnu mrežu. Makijavelizam i psihopatija su negativno povezani sa savesnošću što je i za očekivati, budući da takve osobe ne mare za druge i idu sa ciljem da postignu ono što je najbolje za njih bez obzira da li će prilikom toga naštetiti nekome iz okoline. McLarty, Whitman, Kluemper i Tao navode kako su psihopate nisko na dimenziji neuroticizma, budući da je za neurotične osobe uobičajeno da iskazuju anksioznost i nesigurnost, a psihopate ne iskazuju ovakva ponašanja (McLarty i drugi 2021). Suprotno njima, narcisoidne i makijavelističke ličnosti su pozitivno povezane s neuroticizmom. Savesnost, emocionalna stabilnost i ugodnost su jedine tri dimenzije petofaktorskog modela koje su uspele objasniti nepoželjno organizaciono ponašanje, za razliku od mračne trijade ličnosti, gde su sve tri komponente pozitivno povezane sa kontraproduktivnim organizacionim ponašanjem (Spector 2011).

2. ANALIZA REZULTATA ISTRAŽIVANJA

Demografski podaci istraživanja:

- Najveći procenat ispitanika, 57%, pripada muškoj populaciji, dok 43% pripada ženskoj populaciji.
- Kod starosne strukture zaposlenih dominiraju dve grupe ispitanika mlađe populacije: ispitanici od 31-45 godina starosti, 36,8% i od 20-30 godina starosti, 30,3%.
- Najveći procenat ispitanika ima završen fakultet, 38%, i srednju školu, 30%, dok najmanji procenat ispitanika, 4%, ima završene master ili doktorske studije.
- Kada je u pitanju staž zaposlenih u preduzeću, uočava se da postoje dve dominantne grupe, ispitanici koji imaju staž u kompaniji preko 15 godina, 45%, i ispitanici koji imaju staž od 11 do 15 godina, 32%, dok najmanju grupu čine ispitanici sa stažom od 6-10 godina, 8%.

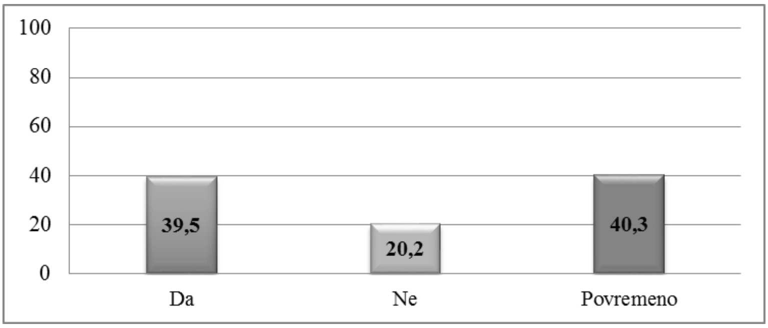
Kako bi se analizirale dominante karakteristike ličnosti ispitanika, kreirana je skala sa tvrdnjama koje opisuju karakteristike ličnosti baziranih na „Velikih pet“, u kojoj se od ispitanika tražilo da zaokruže ponuđene tvrdnje koje odgovaraju karakteristikama njihove ličnosti.

Tabela 1. Karakteristike ličnosti ispitanika (autori)

KARAKTERISTIKE LIČNOSTI ISPITANIKA	PROCENAT (%)
Mislim da sam dobar drug i prijatelj	96%
Stalno se usavršavam i napredujem	45%
Često se ulagujem ljudima	69%
Stalno osećam čežnju za nečim	29%
Imam blagu narav	50%
Često se svađam	47%
Dobrodušan sam	69%
Mnogi smatraju da sam divna osoba	75%
Ljudi me smatraju tajanstvenom osobom	35%
Ja sam drska osoba	45%
U mnogo čemu sam bolji od drugih	85%
Smatram da sam deo elite	48%
Sklon sam da odlažem obaveze	23%
Često sam tužan	25%
Prilično sam neodlučan	59%
Lako planem	51%
Mnogo sam se napatio u životu	55%
Kad pobesnim, padne mi mrak na oči	26%
Budućnost mi izgleda prilično mračna	45%
Ja sam važna osoba	57%
Nije mi problem da prevarim nekog	46%
Imam jaku volju	87%
Imam živu maštu	65%
Veoma sam marljiv i vredan	82%

Često iskorišćavam druge	69%
Stalno tražim tuđe greške	74%
Nemaran sam kada su obaveze u pitanju	24%
Često se osećam ogorčeno	58%
Ja sam prosvećena i obrazovana osoba	78%
Zanimaju me spiritualne veštine i tajne	37%
Postavljam sebi visoke standarde	68%
Gazim „preko mrtvih“ da ostvarim svoje ciljeve	63%
Veoma sam temeljan u onome što radim	86%
Često tragam za informacijama o stvarima koje me zanimaju	92%
Pomalo spletkarim	85%
Ja sam dobar čovek	81%
Volim da sarađujem sa drugima	96%
Ja sam prijatna osoba	85%
Često lažem	30%
Veoma sam društven	94%
Licemeran sam	57%
Veoma sam samostalan i nezavisan	83%
Volim da zbližavam ljude	58%
Često pobesnim	45%
Veoma sam ljubazan prema ljudima	74%
Često sam zamišljen	35%
Ja sam bučna osoba	60%
Idealista sam	51%
Podcenjujem druge	32%
Uvek nađem vremena za igru i zabavu	34%
Uvek ispunjavam sve svoje obaveze	85%
Volim pravila	43%
Mnogi smatraju da sam osobenjak	49%
Ja sam izuzetna osoba	86%
Često me more tužne misli	29%
Ponekad uživam da drugima učinim nažao	36%
Osećam se kao gubitnik	41%
Često se podsmejavam drugima	41%
Veoma sam srdačan	80%
Ja sam nervozna osoba	46%
Vredan sam divljenja	54%
Ja sam kreativna osoba	71%
Često osećam teskobu	35%
Uživam kad trijumfujem	87%
Ja sam ugledna osoba	65%
Veoma sam uporan	82%
Mnogo toga mi nedostaje u životu	36%
Mnoge stvari u životu sam uradio uzalud	53%
Ja sam uticajna osoba	49%
Može se reći da sam prgava osoba	27%

Posmatrajući tabelu 1. uočava se da kod najvećeg procenta ispitanika pet dominantnih karakteristike ličnosti su: dobar drug i prijatelj 96%, uživanje u saradnji sa drugima 96%, odgovornost 95%, društvenost 94% i radoznalost 92%. Ovi podaci pokazuju da kod ispitanika dominiraju karakteristike ličnosti koje spadaju u kategoriju pozitivne emocionalnosti, što im omogućava da budu otvoreni ka okruženju, srdačni i da se brže prilagođavaju promenama. Pet najmanje zastupljenih karakteristika ličnosti ispitanika su: neodgovornost 23%, nemarnost 24%, melanholičnost 25%, nekontrolisani bes 26% i prgavost 27%. Ovi podaci pokazuju da kod većine ispitanika ne postoje karakteristike ličnosti koje spadaju u negativnu valencu, koju karakteriše, agresija prema sebi i drugima, bes, nepopustljivost i teška narav.



Grafikon 1. Da li imate priliku na poslu svakog dana raditi ono u čemu ste najbolji? (autori)

Analizirajući podatke iz grafikona 1. uočava se da najveći broj ispitanika, 40,3%, smatra da samo povremeno ima priliku da na svom radnom mestu radi ono u čemu je najbolji, dok najmanji procenat ispitanika, 20,2%, smatra da uopšte nema priliku da na poslu obavlja ono u čemu je najbolji. Ovi podaci ukazuju da nadređeni još uvek ne znaju da pronađu najbolji način da maksimalno iskoriste potencijal svojih zaposlenih.

Kako bi se istražile emocije ispitanika u vezi sa radnim mestom, nivo zadovoljstva u vezi sa poslom koji obavljaju i ispunjenost karijerom, konstruisana je skala Likertovog tipa u kojoj se od ispitanika tražilo da za svaku tvrdnju na skali od 1 (nikad) do 5 (uvek) procene u kojoj meri se navedene tvrdnje odnose na emocije koje doživljavaju na i u vezi svog posla i karijere. Zbog adekvatnije analize, vrednosti postavljenih tvrdnji izražene u aritmetičkoj sredini (prosečni odgovor ispitanika) grupisane su po određenim parametrima prikazanim u tabeli 2.

Tabela 2. Emocije u vezi radnog mesta (autori)

EMOCIJE U VEZI RADNOG MESTA	ARITMETIČKA SREDINA
Nezadovoljstvo poslom (psihosomatski simptomi)	
Uhvatim sebe kako jedva čekam da dođe vikend ili odmor pa da mogu da pobegnem od svog posla	4,85
Moja karijera me mentalno iscrpljuje	4,80
Mislim da moj posao narušava moje zdravlje	4,90
Moja profesija je kriva zbog haosa u mom privatnom životu	4,50
Moji saradnici me čine nervoznim	4,55
Izbegavanje posla	
Pomisao da treba celi dan da provedem na poslu bukvalno me tera na povraćanje i depresiju	4,70
Javljam da ne dolazim na posao zbog bolesti i kada nisam bolestan	4,85
Prezirem moj trenutni posao	4,10
Često sam u nesuglasicama sa mojim saradnicima i šefovima	4.10
Ispunjenost karijerom	
Usavršavanja u mojoj karijeri mi donose zadovoljstvo	4,65
Lično sam zadovoljan mojom trenutnom karijerom	4,65

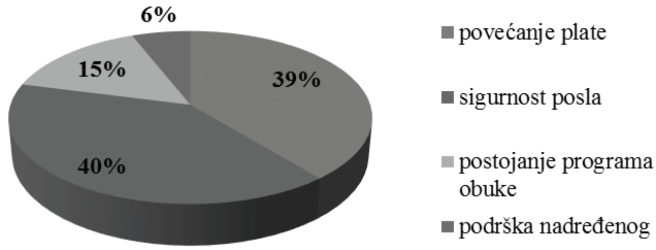
Moja karijera me profesionalno ispunjava	4,95
Kad se probudim ujutro, osećam se dobro zbog odlaska na posao	4,60
Moja me karijera čini srećnim	4,65
Tendencija promene karijere	
Mislim da moj posao ne koristi moje radne potencijale	4,70
Imam želju da se usmerim ka novoj karijeri	4,75
Mislim da bi se moje veštine i interesovanja bolje uklopili na nekom drugom mestu	4,80
Moja karijera mi ne postavlja izazove	3.55
Posvećenost i apsorpcija	
Moj me posao inspiriše	4,50
Ponosan sam na posao koji radim	4,55
Svom se radu potpuno posvetim	4,20
Za mene, moj je posao izazovan	4,10

Prvi parametar u tabeli 2. odnosi se na tvrdnje u kojima dominira osećaj nezadovoljstva poslom. Podaci ukazuju da većina ispitanika smatra da im uvek posao narušava zdravlje, 4,90, i da uhvate sebe kako jedva čekaju da dođe vikend ili odmor pa da mogu da pobegnu od svog posla, 4,85. Ovakve emocije u vezi posla nisu dobre, jer prouzrokuju određene psihosomatske probleme kod ispitanika kao što su osećaj umora, iscrpljenosti, loše spavanje i nevoza. Drugi parametar izbegavanje posla odnosi se na tvrdnje koje, pored nezadovoljstva poslom, odražavaju i loše međuljudske odnose.

Veliki procenat ispitanika se izjasnio da uvek javlja da ne dolazi na posao zbog bolesti i kada nije bolestan, 4,85, a ne treba zanemariti ni činjenicu da je veći procenat ispitanika istakao da ga uvek pomisao da treba celi dan da provede na poslu bukvalno tera na povraćanje i depresiju, 4,70. Osobe koje postižu visoke rezultate na ovom faktoru nisu zadovoljne svojim poslom do te mere da kažu da ga preziru, nerado idu na posao, kasne, na poslu su neefikasni. Ovi podaci pokazuju da se ispitanici kod kojih preovladavaju ovakve emocije najčešće bave poslom koji ne vole, neke je porodica usmerila na posao koji rade, a mnogi imaju loše međuljudske odnose i sa kolegama i sa nadređenima.

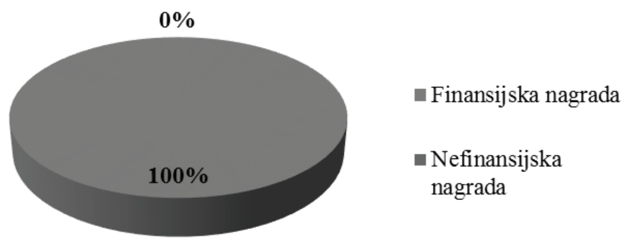
Treći parametar se odnosi na tvrdnje koje odražavaju koliko su ispitanici ispunjeni svojom karijerom i poslom koji rade. Važno je istaći da se tvrdnja za koju se izjasnio najveći procenat ispitanika, da ih uvek njihova karijera profesionalno ispunjava, 4,95, nalazi u okviru ovog parametra. To znači da bez obzira na negativne emocije koje su ispitanici istakli u vezi svog posla, većina njih kompenzaciju i zadovoljstvo pronalazi u ispunjenosti svojom karijerom. Parametar tendencija promene karijere ističe tvrdnje koje se odnose na nezadovoljstvo ispitanika trenutnom karijerom, odnosno, o potrebi za promenom karijere. Najveći procenat ispitanika je istakao činjenicu da uvek misli da bi se njegove veštine i interesovanja bolje uklopili na nekom drugom mestu, 4,80, kao i da njihov posao ne koristi njihove radne potencijale, 4,70. Ovo je problem kojim bi se trebale baviti organizacije u kojima ispitanici rade, jer su ovakve emocije posledice lošeg upravljanja ljudskim resursima.

Na ovaj podatak se nadovezuje i četvrti parametar posvećenost i apsorpcija u okviru koga većina ispitanika nije istakla nijednu tvrdnju. Najveću vrednost odgovora u okviru ovog parametra ima tvrdnja da je dosta ispitanika često ponosna na posao koji radi, 4,55.



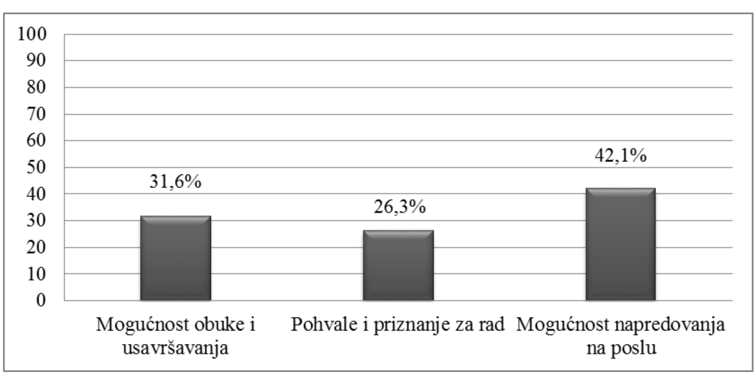
Grafikon 2. Najveći motivacioni faktor u radu? (autori)

Pregled podataka iz grafikona 2. pokazuje da su najveći motivacioni faktori u radu sigurnost posla, 40%, i povećanje plate, 39%. Za postojanje programa obuke opredelilo se samo 18%, a najslabiji motivacioni faktor je podrška nadređenog, 6%. Ovi podaci, nažalost, ukazuju na lošu socijalnu i radnu situaciju u Bosni i Hercegovini, gde se siguran i dobro plaćen posao smatra luksuzom, a obuka i razvoj gube smisao ako nisu povezani sa napretkom u karijeri.



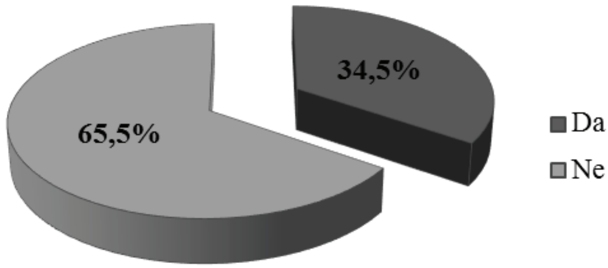
Grafikon 3. Koja vrsta nagrade Vas više motiviše? (autori)

Posmatrajući grafikon 3. može se sa sigurnošću uvideti da čak 100% ispitanika motiviše finansijska nagrada. Iz ovog se može zaključiti da niko od ispitanika nije sentimentalno vezan za posao koji radi.



Grafikon 4. Koja vrsta nematerijalne nagrade Vas najviše motiviše? (autori)

Analizirajući podatke iz grafikona 4. uočava se da najvećem procentu ispitanika, 42,1%, najbolju nematerijalnu motivaciju predstavlja mogućnost napredovanja na poslu, dok se nešto manji broj ispitanika opredelio na mogućnost obuke i usavršavanja. Pohvala i priznanje za rad ima najmanje motivacionog uticaja na ispitanike, 26,3%. Ovi podaci nisu iznenađujući s obzirom na to da napredovanje u karijeri i bolje radno mesto podrazumevaju i veću platu, za koju su se ispitanici već izjasnili kao jedan od najodlučujućih motivacionih faktora u radu.



Grafikon 5. Da li postoji na radnom mestu neko ko ohrabruje Vaš razvoj? (autori)

Podaci iz grafikona 5. pokazuju da 65,5% ispitanika misli da na radnom mestu ne postoji neko ko ohrabruje razvoj pojedinca kao radnika u vidu edukacija, prisustvovanje na seminarima, dobijanje sertifikata, što je poražavajuće. Ovakvi rezultati dokazuju da koncept efikasnog menadžmenta ljudskih resursa još uvek nije implementiran na adekvatan način u Bosni i Hercegovini i da rukovodioci ne smatraju da su zaposleni najvredniji resurs preduzeća, već samo trošak. To se može objasniti činjenicom da mnogi rukovodioci nisu adekvatno edukovani i upoznati sa konceptom savremenog menadžmenta ljudskih resursa.

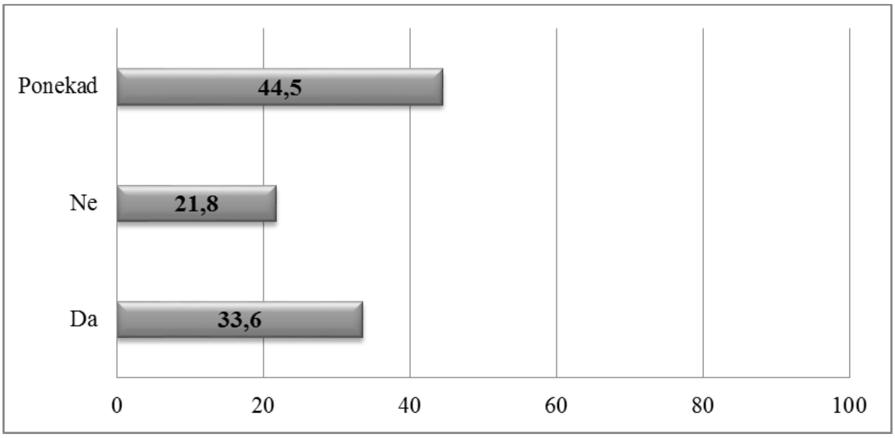
Kako bi se utvrdilo koje lične vrednosti ispitanika utiču na proces donošenja poslovnih odluka i način na koji pojedinci obavljaju radne aktivnosti, kreirana je skala sa karakteristikama koje su grupisane u četiri dimenzije: etika, ljudi, promene i dobiti, u kojoj su ispitanici određivali stepen prioriteta. Lične vrednosti su merene na skali procene Likertovog tipa s rasponom od 1 do 5, pri čemu je 1 označavalo „izuzetno nevažno“, a 5 „izuzetno važno“. U tabeli 3. prikazan je ukupni prosečni odgovor ispitanika (aritmetička sredina) na postavljene karakteristike.

Tabela 3. Lične vrednosti ispitanika koje utiču na način odlučivanja i poslovanja (autori)

LIČNE VREDNOSTI ISPITANIKA	**ARITMETIČKA SREDINA**
ETIKA	
Integritet – beskompromisna odanost moralnim vrednostima koje garantuju častan/besprekoran karakter (npr. činiti ispravna dela, voditi se primerom, biti pouzdan, izvršavati obećano).	**8,5**
Poštenje – iskrenost i neposrednost u komunikaciji i aktivnostima, delovanje u dobroj veri. Postupati u skladu s pravilima i propisima.	**7,5**
Pravednost – uvek zahtevati jednakost, jednaki tretman i nepristranost za sve.	**5,5**
Odgovornost – odgovorno ponašanje za preuzete aktivnosti.	**3,3**

Zdravlje, sigurnost i okolina – nastojati očuvati zdravlje i sigurnost osoblja i svih ostalih, kao i sačuvati okolinu netaknutom za dobrobit svih.	**2,7**
LJUDI	
Poverenje – biti osoba od poverenja na koju se može računati, nesklona varanju, iskrivljenom tumačenju činjenica ili izdavanju tuđeg poverenja.	**5,5**
Iskrenost – uvek tražiti i braniti istinu, bez obzira na uključene osobe ili moguće posledice.	**2,7**
Poštovanje – biti obziran prema svim ljudima, bez obzira na njihov društveni položaj, pol, veru, boju kože.	**4,3**
Odanost – biti veran, neko na koga se možete osloniti u bilo kom trenutku i situaciji.	**3,7**
Uslužnost – promovisati nesebičnost (npr. kroz delovanje u zajednici), stav o nesebičnoj uslužnosti i davanju, spremnost na pomoć u i van organizacije.	**2,9**
Timski rad – promovisati i podsticati duh zajedništva, jedinstva i saradnje.	**2,3**
Briga i pažnja – brižnost i pažljivost prema ljudima, zaposlenima (kroz brigu za njihove porodice, pomoć pri razvoju i planiranju karijere i sl).	**1,7**
Marljivost – pripremljenost, informisanost i volja za ulaganjem potrebne energije i napora.	**1,9**
PROMENE	
Ovlašćenje – povezivati odgovornost s odgovarajućim autoritetom i podsticanje ljudi na akciju.	**6,4**
Otvorenost – otvorenost prema različitim i suprotnim idejama i mišljenjima.	**3,8**
Inovacija – promovisati, pronalaziti i podsticati nova (inovativna) rešenja i metode rada.	**1,4**
Kreativnost – podsticati tehnike kreativnog rješavanja problema, oslobađati stvaralačke potencijale zaposlenih.	**1,6**
Neprekidno poboljšanje – kontinuirano težiti usavršavanju, ne zadovoljavati se postojećim stanjem. Tražiti i ohrabrivati promene.	**5,6**
Fleksibilnost – biti prilagodljiv i podložan promenama. Izbegavati krutost i rigidnost. Suprotnost birokratskom pristupu obavljanja poslova.	**4,2**
DOBIT	
Rast – težiti povećanju udela na tržištu, proizvodnje (produkcije) i širenju poslovanja.	**4**
Profitabilnost – postizanje ciljeva i ostvarivanje profita (uz obzirnost prema svim uključenima).	**7,2**
Učinkovitost – ohrabrivati ispravne i odgovarajuće pristupe koji dovode do najboljih rezultata i efekata.	**3**
Rezultati – usmerenost na rezultat ili konačni učinak uloženog truda (rada).	**5,3**
Kvalitet – podsticati i težiti izvrsnosti, imati visoke standarde kvaliteta u poslovnim aktivnostima.	**5**

Analizirajući podatke iz tabele 3. uočava se da su aritmetičke sredine navedenih ličnih vrednosti u okviru četiri dimenzije pozitivne. U dimenziji etika, ispitanici se prilikom odlučivanja i poslovanja najviše oslanjaju na integritet (8,5), poštenje (7,5) i pravednost (5,5), što ukazuje da moral, jednakost i neposrednost imaju važnu ulogu u postupcima ispitanika. U okviru dimenzije ljudi, na donošenje odluka i poslovanje ispitanika najviše utiču poverenje (5,5), poštovanje (4,3) i odanost (3,7), što pokazuje da je ispitanicima u procesu odlučivanja važno na koga se odnose odluke. Lične vrednosti koje najviše utiču na proces odlučivanja i poslovanja ispitanika u okviru dimenzije promene su ovlašćenje (6,4), neprekidno poboljšanje (5,6) i fleksibilnost (4,2), što pokazuje da su u procesu odlučivanja ispitanici usmereni ka domenu svojih odgovornosti, ali i dovoljno spremni na prilagođavanje i konstantno usavršavanje. Kod dimenzije dobit, lične vrednosti koje najviše utiču na proces odlučivanja i poslovanja ispitanika su profitabilnost (7,2), rezultati (5,3) i kvalitet (5), što ukazuje na posvećenost ispitanika profitu koji vide u rezultatima i poslovnoj izvrsnosti. Takođe, treba istaći da kod ispitanika, u okviru dimenzije promene, inovacija (1,4) i kreativnost (1,6), nažalost, nisu još uvek prepoznate kao prave vrednosti, što pokazuje određen stepen otpora promenama kod ispitanika.



Grafikon 6. Da li se na poslu Vaše mišljenje uzima u obzir? (autori)

Podaci iz grafikona 6. pokazuju da 33.6% ispitanika ima mišljenje koje drugi uzimaju u obzir, uključujući i ispitanike, 44.5% čije mišljenje se povremeno uzima u obzir, može se zaključiti da se ipak čuje riječ zaposlenih u preduzeću, odnosno, njihovo mišljenje.
Kako bi se utvrdio stepen odanosti ispitanika prema organizaciji, korišćena je skala sa tvrdnjama zasnovana na Trokomponentnom modelu organizacijske odanosti, koji su kreirali Meyer i Allen (Meyer i Allen 1991). Meyer i Allen utvrđuju kako se u Trokomponentnom modelu, afektivna odanost organizaciji manifestuje kao osećaj privrženosti zaposlenog organizaciji, identifikacije s organizacijom i zaokupljenosti organizacijom (Meyer i Allen 1991). Afektivno odani pojedinci rade u organizaciji zato jer to žele. Instrumentalna se odanost odnosi na svest zaposlenog o ceni napuštanja organizacije. Zaposleni čija se vezanost za organizaciju zasniva primarno na instrumentalnoj odanosti, ostaju u organizaciji zbog toga što im je to potrebno. Normativna se odanost zasniva na osećaju obaveze ostanka u organizaciji. Visoko normativno odani zaposleni osećaju da moraju ostati u organizaciji, jer takvo ponašanje vide kao moralno i ispravno.
Pri popunjavanju Skale organizacijske odanosti od ispitanika se tražilo da za svaku tvrdnju na skali Likertovog tipa od 1 (uopšte se ne slažem) do 5 (u potpunosti se slažem), procene koliko se slažu, odnosno, ne slažu sa navedenim tvrdnjama, koje su grupisane u okviru tri navedene komponente. U tabeli 4. prikazan je ukupni prosečni odgovor ispitanika (aritmetička sredina) na postavljene tvrdnje.

Tabela 4. Odanost prema organizaciji (autori)

ODANOST PREMA ORGANIZACIJI	ARITMETIČKA SREDINA
Afektivna	
Ova radna organizacija mi puno znači	**4,17**
Probleme radne organizacije u kojoj radim osećam kao svoje vlastite	**3,75**
Nemam snažan osećaj pripadnosti radnoj organizaciji u kojoj radim	**2,49**
Veoma bi me veselilo da ostatak karijere provedem baš u ovoj radnoj organizaciji	**3,89**
Ne osećam se emocionalno vezanim za ovu radnu organizaciju	**3,08**
Instrumentalna	
U ovom trenutku, ostanak u ovoj radnoj organizaciji za mene je podjednako i potreba i želja	**3,78**
Jedna od negativnih posledica napuštanja ova radne organizacije bila bi nepostojanje realne alternative	**3,08**
U ovom trenutku bilo bi mi teško napustiti radnu organizaciju u kojoj radim, čak i kad bih to želio/la	**3,54**
Previše bi se toga poremetilo u mom životu kada bih odlučio/la napustiti ovu radnu organizaciju baš sada	**3,52**
Osećam da imam premalo izbora da bih razmišljao/la o odlasku iz ove organizacije	**3,03**
Normativna	
Ne bih napustio/la baš sad ovu radnu organizaciju, jer imam osećaj obaveze prema ljudima u njoj	**3,26**
Puno toga dugujem ovoj radnoj organizaciji	**3,30**
Čak i kad bi to bila prednost za mene, osećam da sada ne bi bilo u redu napustiti ovu radnu organizaciju	**3,03**
Nemam nikakav osećaj obaveze da ostanem kod sadašnjeg poslodavca	**2,39**
Ova radna organizacija zaslužuje moju lojalnost	**3,66**

Analizirajući podatke iz tabele 4. uočava se da je u odgovorima ispitanika najveću vrednost imala tvrdnja u okviru afektivne dimenzije odanosti: „Ova radna organizacija mi puno znači“, gde je aritmetička sredina tvrdnje iznosila 4,17, dok je najniža vrednost bila u okviru normativne dimenzije odanosti za tvrdnju: „Nemam nikakav osećaj obaveze da ostanem kod sadašnjeg poslodavca“, gde je aritmetička sredina iznosila 2,39 na skali od 1 do 5. Visoke vrednosti imaju i tvrdnje: „Veoma bi me veselilo da ostatak karijere provedem baš u ovoj radnoj organizaciji“, 3,89, „U ovom trenutku, ostanak u ovoj radnoj organizaciji za mene je podjednako i potreba i želja“, 3,78, „Probleme radne organizacije u kojoj radim osećam kao svoje vlastite“, 3,75 i „Ova radna organizacija zaslužuje moju lojalnost“, 3,66.

Takođe, posmatrajući ukupne vrednosti svake komponente, uočava se da dominira afektivna komponenta, 17,38 pa se može zaključiti da je veliki procenat ispitanika veoma privržen organizaciji u kojoj radi, da se s njom identifikuje i da u toj organizaciji radi, jer to želi. Ipak, ne treba zanemariti ni ukupan rezultat instrumentalne komponente, 16,95, koji ukazuje da veći procenat ispitanika ostaje u organizaciji iz potrebe i zbog svesnosti o ceni napuštanja organizacije. Najniža ukupna vrednost normativne komponente, 15,64, ne ide u prilog organizacijama u kojima ispitanici rade, jer ukazuje da veliki procenat ispitanika nema razvijen osećaj lojalnosti pa se može zaključiti da organizacije trebaju više pažnje da posvete izgrađivanju kvalitetnih dugoročnih odnosa sa svojim zaposlenima.

Namera ostanka ispitanika u organizaciji procenjivala se kroz skalu od pet tvrdnji koje su se odnosile na ponašanja vezana uz traženje novog zaposlenja. Pri popunjavanju skale od ispitanika se tražilo da za svaku tvrdnju na skali Likertovog tipa od 1 (uopšte se ne slažem) do 5 (u potpunosti se slažem) procene koliko se slažu, odnosno, ne slažu sa navedenim tvrdnjama.

Tabela 5. Namera ostanka u organizaciji (autori)

OCENA	1 - Uopšte se ne slažem	2 - Ne slažem se	3 - Nemam mišljenje	4 - Slažem se	5 - U potpunosti se slažem
Mislim da ću u sledećih godinu dana aktivno da tražim novi posao	**57%**	**9,4%**	**17,7%**	**6,8%**	**9,1%**
Razmišljam o odlasku iz svoga sadašnjeg preduzeća	**55,8%**	**9,4%**	**16,6%**	**11,7%**	**6,5%**
Promeniću posao čim mi se ukaže prilika	**47,2%**	**10,6%**	**19,6%**	**14,3%**	**8,3%**
Pratim konkurse u kojima se traže stručnjaci mog profila	**49%**	**10,6%**	**14,7%**	**13,2%**	**12,5%**
Trenutno aktivno tražim drugi posao	**67,2%**	**6,8%**	**12,5%**	**8,6%**	**4,9%**

Posmatrajući tabelu 5. uočava se kako u odgovorima ispitanika kod svih pet tvrdnji dominiraju odgovori koji pokazuju kako najveći procenat isptanika, 67,2%, nisu u aktivnom traženju posla niti u sledećih godinu dana misle aktivno da traže novi posao, 57%. Ovi podaci ukazuju da ispitanici nemaju nameru da odu iz organizacija u kojima rade. Ipak, ne treba zanemariti ni podatak da se 32,6% ispitanika uglavnom ili u potpunosti slaže da će promeniti posao čim im se ukaže prilika, jer ovaj podatak pokazuje da dosta ispitanika nije u potpunosti zadovoljno organizacijama u kojima radi i da trenutno nemaju izbora da rade na nekom boljem radnom mestu.

ZAKLJUČAK

Svaka osoba ulaskom u organizaciju donosi nešto svoje pa individualne razlike pojedinca utiču na radno ponašanje i radnu uspešnost. Karakteristike ličnosti se na profesionalnom planu manifestuju na različite načine - u formi dominantnog oblika motivacije za rad, kroz pozitivan ili negativan stav prema radu, kvalitetu izvođenja određenog posla, spremnost na unapređenje profesionalnih veština, participaciju u timskom radu, ali i na percepciji sopstvene radne uloge, profesije, kao i organizacije u celini. Snaga svake ličnosti je u načinu kako će se osoba ponašati u određenim socijalnim situacijama i kako će je drugi percipirati. Sprovedeno istraživanja u ovom radu koji se bavi odnosom crta ličnosti iz petofaktorskog modela i radnog ponašanja, pokazalo je da se na osnovu tih crta ličnosti mogu predvideti različiti aspekti radnog ponašanja. Motivacija na poslu, zadovoljstvo poslom, kontraproduktivno ponašanje, timski rad i radna uspešnost samo su neki od konstrukata koji su povezani s navedenih pet faktora. S obzirom na to da savesnost, ugodnost i emocionalna stabilnost obeležavaju karakteristike koje se povezuju s prosocijalnim ponašanjem, može se zaključiti da će ovakve osobe imati dobar radni učinak i raditi za dobrobit organizacije, što implicira da karakteristike ličnosti zaposlenih direktno utiču na njihov rad u organizaciji.

Svaki čovek teži ugodnoj okolini i pozitivnoj komunikaciji. U takvim uslovima oseća se opušteno, spremniji je i sposobniji za rad. Kada situacija na radnom mestu nije takva gubi se zainteresovanost za rad, opada motivacija i pojavljuje se nezadovoljstvo. Svaka organizacija bi trebalo da usmerava svoj rad tako da teži pozitivnoj energiji, zadovoljstvu zaposlenih, dobrim radnim uslovima i poštenim nagrađivanjem, koji vode do stvaranja dugoročnih lojalnih odnosa sa zaposlenima. Zaposleni koji su adekvatno motivisani i zadovoljni svojom karijerom postaju odani svojoj organizaciji, što doprinosi povećanju njihove angažovanosti na poslu.

Prakse upravljanja ljudskim resursima koje pružaju zaposlenima pozitivno radno okruženje i mogućnosti prava glasa, učešća, autonomiju i moć odlučivanja pozitivno utiču na zadovoljstvo zaposlenih. Na osnovu utvrđenih relacija karakteristika ličnosti i faktora zadovoljstva karijerom, moguće je osmisliti takve treninge zaposlenih u kojima bi se smanjivao uticaj nepoželjnih, odnosno, razvijalo i podržavalo prisustvo poželjnih crta ličnosti. Pored toga i na osnovu dobijenih rezultata istraživanja, a u okviru procesa selekcije, moguće je akcenat staviti na one crte ličnosti, kao i faktore strukture radne motivacije, koji su poželjni u datom organizacijskom kontekstu. Na unutrašnju motivaciju utiče mogućnost za zadovoljstvom i ispunjenjem na radu i za sticanje osećaja samoostvarenja kroz posao. Prakse kao što su obuka i razvoj i sistemi plaćanja na bazi veština, obogaćivanje posla, osnaživanje zaposlenih, kao i učešće zaposlenih, mogu direktno da utiču na unutrašnju motivaciju i lična dostignuća. Imajući u vidu prethodno navedeno, može se zaključiti da je generalna hipoteza koja glasi postizanje ravnoteže između karakteristika ličnosti zaposlenih, motivacionih faktora i vrednosti organizacije predstavlja osnovu za povećanje radne učinkovitosti zaposlenih, stvaranje koncepta lojalnosti zaposlenih i ostvarivanje konkurentske prednosti na tržištu, dokazana.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 06/02/2023
The paper accepted: 09/02/2023

UDK 331.105.24:159.923.075
DOI 10.7251/POS2330075V
COBISS.RS-ID 138851073
Original scientific paper

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INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS ON EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOR AND WORK EFFICIENCY

Summary: *Human resources represent the great potential of every company, while the way they are managed becomes a decisive factor in the company's competitive advantage and further development. The focus of modern human resources management should be the concept of dimensions of the personality of employees, in order to get answers to the questions of what drives, encourages and motivates employees to greater work performance, as well as how to harmonize personal values with the values of the organization. Therefore, the goal of the research is aimed at identifying the way in which the personality dimensions of employees influence their behavior, job and career satisfaction, as well as the degree of their engagement in the workplace. The scientific-research character of this work is based on the analysis of relevant scientific literature and modern sources using the method of examination, method of analysis, method of comparison, methods of description and methods of deduction. The analysis of the results of the primary research confirmed that achieving a balance between the personality characteristics of employees, motivational factors and organizational values is the basis for increasing the work efficiency of employees, creating the concept of employee loyalty and achieving a competitive advantage on the market.*

Key words: *personality, work behavior, efficiency, HRM*

JEL classification: *M54, O15, M12, D23*

INTRODUCTION

The challenges of modern companies, along with the imperative of achieving the company's strategic goals, also include the problem of creating conditions in which the company will adapt to the individual as an individual, and not the individual to the company. This means that the company should enable positive changes in the knowledge, skills, behavior and attitudes of employees, which will affect the performance of employees at work, and which, improved in this way, contribute to the overall performance of the company, as well as to the creation of a positive organizational climate. The question is how to create conditions in which the level of personal values and characteristics of employees match the values and goals of the company, while ensuring the high efficiency of the company with quality products and services, which are the product of a highly motivated workforce? In order to get an answer to the question posed, the paper includes an analysis of the influence of personality dimensions of employees on work behavior and efficiency. The research method was used, which was carried out by filling out a questionnaire during October 2022. The survey was anonymous and was conducted on 100 respondents from different cities on the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions, four of which related to the demographic characteristics of the respondents, and the other eleven questions related to the topic of the survey. In accordance with the above, the hypothesis was defined that achieving a balance between the personality characteristics of employees, motivational factors and organizational values is the basis for increasing the work efficiency of employees, creating the concept of employee loyalty and achieving a competitive advantage on the market.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

In modern organizational psychology and human resource management, the "Big Five" model is generally accepted as a personality typology, which includes the following dimensions: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness (Teryima Sev 2019). Neuroticism is characterized by unpleasant emotions such as anger, anxiety and depression. Extraversion includes friendliness, energy, talkativeness, seeking new experiences and social connections that enable interaction with other people (Salgado 2002). Openness is a personality trait that signifies readiness to accept new ideas and experience, intellectual curiosity, preference for diversity, need for change, and independence of thought. Agreeableness is characterized by cooperativeness, politeness, courtesy and friendliness (Judge et al. 2013). Conscientiousness reflects the tendency to be responsible, organized, diligent, goal-oriented while adhering to norms and rules (Chiaburu et al. 2011). Over the last fifteen years, there is a large body of evidence that the components of the "Big Five" provide a good prediction of job achievement, and that as such they are very useful in the process of employee selection and predicting contextual performance and organizational citizenship behavior (Babar and Tahir 2020).

Along with some of the criticisms directed at the "Big Five" model, there is also the criticism that the "bad traits" and the dark side of personality are not included with that model (Spain and Harms and LeBreton 2014). That is why there was a need to explore the darker sides of the personality. The Dark Triad, which includes Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy, has been shown to be more effective in predicting negative work behavior outcomes than the Big Five model (Youli and Chao 2015). The dark triad includes behaviors that tend toward self-promotion, emotional coldness, and aggression (McLarty et al. 2021). Machiavellians can be said to live by the proverb "In love and war, anything is permitted", as they very often exploit and manipulate others in order to achieve their own goals. They are very adaptable and ready to cooperate if it means they will reach their goal. They have a high desire to manipulate and lie, but it does not always mean that they have the ability to perform these actions. A narcissistic personality is extremely grandiose and emphasizes his dominance (Wallace and Baumeister 2002). Narcissistic individuals are very successful in promoting themselves because they are extremely talkative. They see others as a threat to their ego, so they often position themselves as superior (Hong and Emagnaw 2019). Psychopathic personality traits include high impulsivity, excitement seeking, and low levels of empathy and anxiety (Paulhus and Williams 2002). Such people do not express a sense of guilt and remorse, so they seem cold and distant. But the dark triad also implies some popular characteristics such as charm, good leadership, courage in taking risky decisions and social skills. They are very skilled at hiding their true face, so at first they seem like exceptional workers, but after spending more time with them, others see what kind of people they are.

Research has also shown some links between the dimensions of the "Big Five" model and the dark triad, so O' Boyle et al. state that narcissism and psychopathy are positively related to the dimensions of extraversion and openness to experience (O' Boyle et al. 2012). Thanks to their charm and talkativeness, such individuals create a wide circle of acquaintances and create a large social network. Machiavellianism and psychopathy are negatively associated with conscientiousness, which is to be expected, since such individuals do not care about others and aim to achieve what is best for them, regardless of whether they will harm anyone around them. McLarty, Whitman, Kluemper, and Tao state that psychopaths are low on the neuroticism dimension, since it is common for neurotic individuals to exhibit anxiety and insecurity, whereas psychopaths do not exhibit these behaviors (McLarty et al. 2021). Contrary to them, narcissistic and Machiavellian personalities are positively associated with neuroticism. Conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness are the only three dimensions of the five-factor model that managed to explain undesirable organizational behavior, unlike the dark triad of personality where all three components are positively related to counterproductive organizational behavior (Spector 2011).

2. ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS

Demographic data of the research:

- The highest percentage of respondents, 57%, belongs to the male population, while 43% belongs to the female population.
- The age structure of the employees is dominated by two groups of respondents from the younger population: respondents aged 31-45, 36.8%, and 20-30, 30.3%.
- The highest percentage of respondents have completed college 38% and high school 30%, while the lowest percentage of respondents 4% have completed master's or doctoral studies.
- When it comes to service of employees in the company, it can be seen that there are two dominant groups, respondents who have service in the company over 15 years 45% and respondents who have service of 11 to 15 years 32%, while the smallest group is respondents with experience of 6 - 10 years 8%.

In order to analyze the dominant personality characteristics of the respondents, a scale was created with statements describing the personality characteristics based on the "Big Five", in which the respondents were asked to circle the statements that correspond to their personality characteristics.

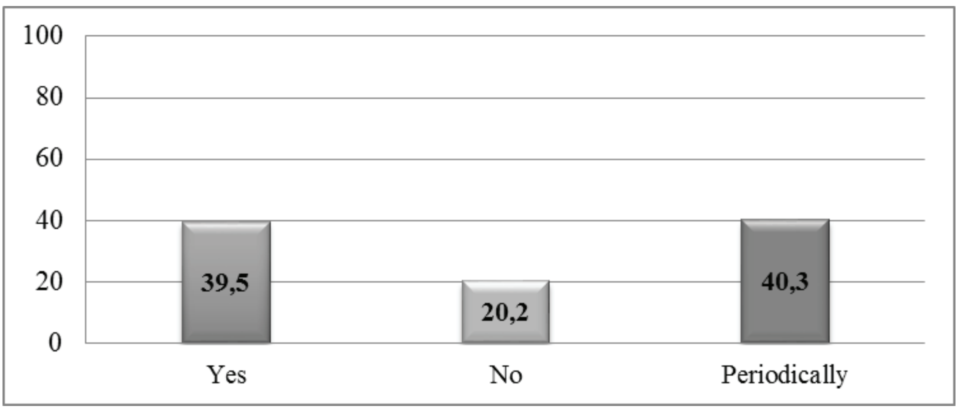
Table 1. Personality characteristics of respondents (Authors)

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS	PERCENT (%)
I think I'm a good companion and friend	96%
I'm constantly improving and perfecting	45%
I often flatter people	69%
I always feel longing for something	29%
I have a mild temper	50%
I often argue	47%
I'm good-natured	69%
Many people think I'm a wonderful person	75%
People think I'm a mysterious person	35%
I'm a cheeky person	45%
In many ways I'm better than others	85%
I consider myself part of the elite	48%
I tend to procrastinate	23%
I am often sad	25%

I am quite indecisive	59%
I get angry quickly	51%
I have suffered a lot in life	55%
When I get angry my eyes go dark	26%
The future seems quite dark to me	45%
I am an important person	57%
I have no problem deceiving someone	46%
I have a strong will	87%
I have a vivid imagination	65%
I am very diligent and hardworking	82%
I often take advantage of others	69%
I am constantly looking for other people's faults	74%
I am careless when it comes to obligations	24%
I often feel resentful	58%
I am an enlightened and educated person	78%
I am interested in spiritual skills and secrets	37%
I set high standards for myself	68%
I tread "over the dead" to achieve my goals	63%
I am very thorough in what I do	86%
I often look for information about things that interest me	92%
I am a little scheming	85%
I am a good person	81%
I like to cooperate with others	96%
I am a pleasant person	85%
I often lie	30%
I am very sociable	94%
I'm a hypocrite	57%
I'm very self-reliant and independent	83%
I like to bring people together	58%
I often get angry	45%
I'm very kind to people	74%
I'm often thoughtful	35%
I'm a noisy person	60%
I'm an idealist	51%
I underestimate others	32%
I always find time to play and have fun	34%
I always fulfill all my obligations	85%
I like rules	43%
Many people think I'm special	49%
I'm an exceptional person	86%
I often have sad thoughts	29%
Sometimes I enjoy making others feel bad	36%
I feel like a loser	41%
I often make fun of others	41%
I am very warm person	80%
I am a nervous person	46%
I am admirable	54%
I am a creative person	71%
I often feel anxious	35%

I enjoy triumphing	87%
I am a respectable person	65%
I am very persistent	82%
I miss many things in my life	36%
I have done many things in my life in vain	53%
I am an influential person	49%
You can say that I am a grumpy person	27%

Looking at table 1, it can be seen that for the largest percentage of respondents, the five dominant personality characteristics are: good companion and friend 96%, enjoyment of cooperation with others 96%, responsibility 95%, sociability 94% and curiosity 92%. These data show that the respondents are dominated by personality characteristics that fall into the category of positive emotionality, which allows them to be open to the environment, cordial and to adapt to changes more quickly. The five least prevalent personality characteristics of the respondents are: irresponsibility 23%, carelessness 24%, melancholy 25%, uncontrolled anger 26% and grumpiness 27%. These data show that the majority of respondents do not have personality characteristics that belong to the negative valence, which is characterized by aggression towards oneself and others, anger, intransigence and difficult temper.



Graph 1. Do you have the opportunity at work every day to do what you do best? (Authors)

Analyzing the data from graph 1, it can be seen that the largest number of respondents, 40.3%, believe that they only occasionally have the opportunity to do what they are best at, at their workplace, while the smallest percentage of respondents, 20.2%, believe that they do not have that opportunity. These data indicate that superiors still do not know how to find the best way to maximize the potential of their employees.

In order to investigate respondents' emotions about their workplace, their level of satisfaction with their work and career fulfillment, a Likert-type scale was constructed in which respondents were asked to rate each statement on a scale from 1 (never) to 5 (always) assess the extent to which the stated statements relate to the emotions they experience at and in connection with their work and career. For a more adequate analysis, the values of the statements expressed in the arithmetic mean (average response of respondents) were grouped according to certain parameters shown in table 2.

Table 2. Emotions about the workplace (Authors)

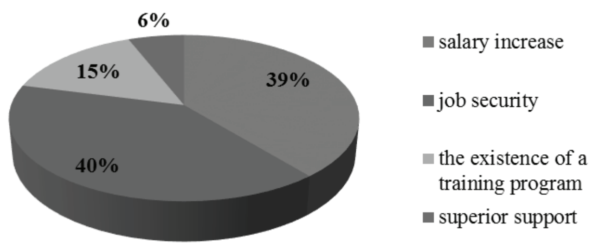
EMOTIONS ABOUT THE WORKPLACE	ARITHMETIC MEAN
Dissatisfaction with work (Psychosomatic symptoms)	
I find myself looking forward to the weekend or vacation so I can get away from my job	4,85
My career is draining me mentally	4,80
I think my job is ruining my health	4,90
My profession is to blame for the chaos in my personal life	4,50
My co-workers make me nervous	4,55
Avoiding work	
The thought of having to spend the whole day at work literally makes me want to throw up and become depressed	4,70
I report that I do not come to work due to illness even when I am not sick	4,85
I despise my current job	4,10
I am often at odds with my co-workers and bosses	4.10
Career fulfillment	
Improvements in my career bring me satisfaction	4,65
I am personally satisfied with my current career	4,65
My career fulfills me professionally	4,95
When I wake up in the morning I feel good about going to work	4,60
My career makes me happy	4,65
The tendency to change careers	
I don't think my job is using my work potential	4,70
I have a desire to move towards a new career	4,75
I think my skills and interests would fit better elsewhere	4,80
My career doesn't challenge me	3.55
Dedication and absorption	
My work inspires me	4,50
I am proud of the work I do	4,55
I dedicate myself completely to my work	4,20
For me, my work is challenging	4,10

The first parameter in Table 2 refers to statements dominated by the feeling of job dissatisfaction. The data indicate that the majority of respondents believe that their work always damages their health 4.90 and that they find themselves looking forward to the weekend or vacation so that they can escape from their work 4.85. Such emotions in relation to work are not good, because they cause certain psychosomatic problems in the respondents, such as feeling tired, exhausted, sleeping poorly and not being able to drive. The second parameter, work avoidance, refers to claims that, in addition to job dissatisfaction, also reflect poor interpersonal relationships.

A large percentage of respondents declared that they always report not coming to work due to illness even when they are not sick 4.85, and we should not ignore the fact that a larger percentage of respondents pointed out that the thought of having to spend the whole day at work literally makes them vomiting and depression 4.70. People who achieve high results on this factor are not satisfied with their work to the extent that they say they despise it, are reluctant to go to work, are late, and are ineffective at work. These data show that respondents who are dominated by such emotions are most often engaged in work they don't like, some were directed by their family to the work they do, and many have bad interpersonal relationships with both colleagues and superiors.

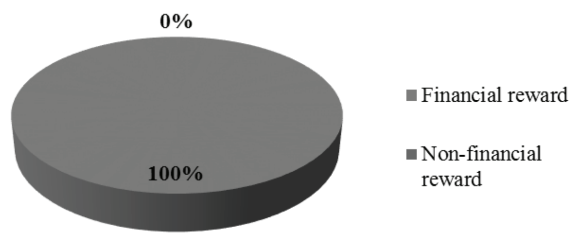
The third parameter refers to statements that reflect how satisfied the respondents are with their career and the work they do. It is important to point out that the claim made by the largest percentage of respondents, that their career always fulfills them professionally 4.95, is within this parameter. This means that regardless of the negative emotions that the interviewees pointed out regarding their work, most of them find compensation and satisfaction in the fulfillment of their career. The career change tendency parameter highlights claims related to respondents' dissatisfaction with their current career, i.e., the need for a career change. The largest percentage of respondents highlighted the fact that they always think that their skills and interests would be better suited elsewhere 4.80, and that their job does not use their work potential 4.70.

This information is followed by the fourth parameter, commitment and absorption, within which the majority of respondents did not highlight any claims. The highest response value within this parameter is the statement that many respondents are often proud of the work they do 4.55.



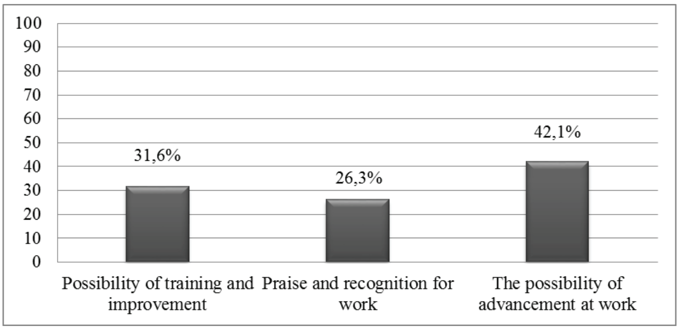
Graph 2. The biggest motivating factor at work? (Authors)

An overview of the data from graph 2 shows that the biggest motivating factors in work are job security 40% and salary increase 39%. Only 18% opted for the existence of a training program, and the weakest motivating factor is the support of a superior, 6%. These data, unfortunately, indicate a poor social and work situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, where a safe and well-paid job is considered a luxury, and training and development lose their meaning if they are not linked to career advancement.



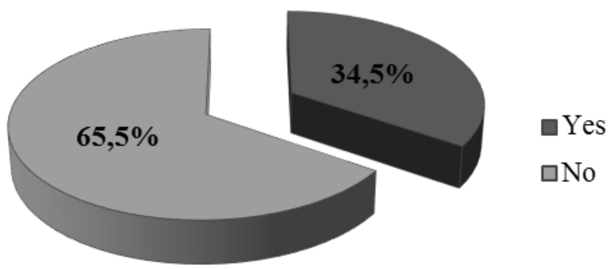
Graph 3. Which type of reward motivates you more? (Authors)

Looking at graph 3, it can be seen with certainty that even 100% of respondents are motivated by financial reward. From this it can be concluded that none of the interviewees is sentimentally attached to the work they do.



Graph 4. What kind of intangible reward motivates you the most? (Authors)

Analyzing the data from graph 4, it can be seen that for the largest percentage of respondents, 42.1%, the best non-material motivation is the possibility of advancement at work, while a slightly smaller number of respondents opted for the possibility of training and improvement. Praise and recognition for work has the least motivational impact on respondents 26.3%. These data are not surprising considering that career progression and a better workplace mean a higher salary, which the respondents have already declared as one of the most decisive motivational factors in work.



Graph 5. Is there someone at the workplace who encourages your development? (Authors)

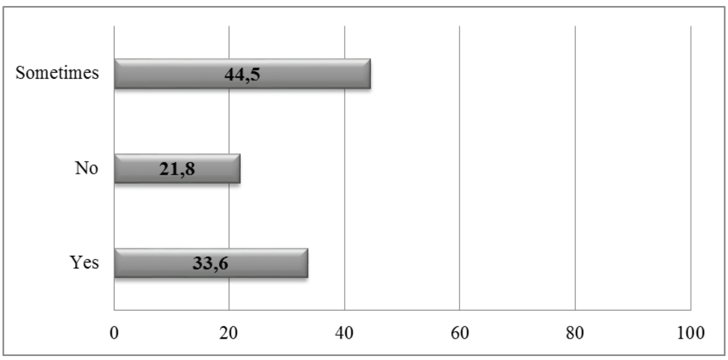
The data from graph 5 shows that 65.5% of respondents think that there is no one at the workplace who encourages the development of an individual as a worker in the form of education, attending seminars, obtaining certificates, which is devastating. Such results prove that the concept of efficient human resources management has not yet been implemented adequately in Bosnia and Herzegovina and that managers do not consider employees to be the most valuable resource of the company, but only an expense. This can be explained by the fact that many managers are not adequately educated and familiar with the concept of modern human resources management.

In order to determine which personal values of respondents influence the process of making business decisions and the way individuals perform work activities, a scale was created with characteristics grouped into four dimensions: ethics, people, changes and profit, in which respondents determined the degree of priority. Personal values were measured on a Likert-type rating scale ranging from 1 to 5, with 1 being "Extremely unimportant" and 5 being "Extremely important". Table 3 shows the overall average response of the respondents (arithmetic mean) to the set characteristics.

Table 3. Personal values of respondents that influence the way of decision-making and business (Authors)

PERSONAL VALUES OF THE RESPONDENTS	ARITHMETIC MEAN
ETHICS	
Integrity – uncompromising devotion to moral values that guarantee honorable/impeccable character (eg, doing the right thing, leading by example, being trustworthy, keeping promises).	**8,5**
Honesty - sincerity and immediacy in communication and activities, acting in good faith. Act in accordance with rules and regulations.	**7,5**
Fairness – always demand equality, equal treatment and impartiality for all.	**5,5**
Responsibility - responsible behavior for undertaken activities.	**3,3**
Health, safety and environment - to strive to preserve the health and safety of staff and everyone else, as well as to keep the environment intact for the benefit of all.	**2,7**
PEOPLE	
Trust - to be a trustworthy person who can be counted on, not prone to cheating, misrepresenting facts or betraying other people's trust.	**5,5**
Honesty – always seeking and defending the truth, regardless of the people involved or the possible consequences.	**2,7**
Respect - to be considerate of all people, regardless of their social position, gender, religion, skin color.	**4,3**
Loyalty – being faithful, someone you can rely on at any time and situation.	**3,7**
Helpfulness - promote selflessness (eg through community service), an attitude of selfless helpfulness and giving, willingness to help inside and outside the organization.	**2,9**
Teamwork - to promote and encourage the spirit of togetherness, unity and cooperation.	**2,3**
Care and attention - care and attentiveness towards people, employees (through care for their families, help with career development and planning, etc.).	**1,7**
Diligence - preparedness, awareness and willingness to invest the necessary energy and effort.	**1,9**
CHANGES	
Empowerment – linking responsibility with appropriate authority and motivating people to take action.	**6,4**
Openness – openness to different and opposing ideas and opinions.	**3,8**
Innovation - to promote, find and encourage new (innovative) solutions and work methods.	**1,4**
Creativity - encourage creative problem solving techniques, unleash the creative potential of employees.	**1,6**
Continuous improvement - continuously striving for improvement, not being satisfied with the existing state. Seek and encourage change.	**5,6**
Flexibility – being adaptable and subject to change. Avoid stiffness and rigidity. The opposite of the bureaucratic approach to doing business.	**4,2**
PROFIT	
Growth - strive to increase market share, production (production) and business expansion.	**4**
Profitability - achieving goals and making a profit (with consideration for all involved).	**7,2**
Effectiveness – encourage correct and appropriate approaches that lead to the best results and effects.	**3**
Results - focus on the result or the final performance of the effort (work).	**5,3**
Quality - encourage and strive for excellence, have high quality standards in business activities.	**5**

Analyzing the data from Table 3, it can be seen that the arithmetic means of the mentioned personal values within the four dimensions are positive. In the dimension of ethics, when making decisions and doing business, the respondents mostly rely on integrity (8.5), honesty (7.5) and fairness (5.5), which indicates that morality, equality and immediacy play an important role in the actions of the respondents. Within the dimension of people, decision-making and business operations of respondents are most influenced by trust (5.5), respect (4.3) and loyalty (3.7), which shows that it is important to respondents in the decision-making process to which the decisions refer. The personal values that most influence the respondents' decision-making and business processes within the dimension of change are empowerment (6.4), continuous improvement (5.6) and flexibility (4.2), which shows that in the decision-making process the respondents are directed towards the domain of their responsibilities, but also sufficiently ready for adaptation and constant improvement. In the profit dimension, the personal values that most influence the respondents' decision-making and business processes are profitability (7.2), results (5.3) and quality (5), which indicates the respondents' dedication to profit, which they see in results and business excellence. Also, it should be pointed out that among the respondents, within the dimension of change, innovation (1.4) and creativity (1.6), unfortunately, are not yet recognized as true values, which shows a certain degree of resistance to changes among the respondents.



Graph 6. Is your opinion taken into account at work? (Authors)

Data from graph 10 show that 33.6% of respondents have an opinion that others take into account, including 44.5% of respondents whose opinion is occasionally taken into account, it can be concluded that the word of the company's employees is still heard, that is, their opinion.

In order to determine the degree of loyalty of respondents to the organization, a scale with statements based on the Three-Component Model of Organizational Loyalty, created by Meyer and Alle, was used (Meyer and Allen 1991). Meyer and Allen determine how in the Three-component model, affective loyalty to the organization manifests itself as an employee's sense of attachment to the organization, identification with the organization and preoccupation with the organization (Meyer and Allen 1991). Affectively loyal individuals work in an organization because they want to. Instrumental loyalty refers to the employee's awareness of the cost of leaving the organization. Employees whose attachment to the organization is based primarily on instrumental loyalty stay in the organization because they need it. Normative loyalty is based on a sense of obligation to remain in the organization. Highly normatively loyal employees feel that they must stay with the organization.

When filling out the Scale of Organizational Loyalty, the respondents were asked to rate each statement on a Likert-type scale from 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (completely agree), to what extent they agree or disagree with the stated statements, which are grouped together within the three listed components. Table 4 shows the overall average response of respondents (arithmetic mean) to the statements.

Table 4. Loyalty to the organization (Authors)

LOYALTY TO THE ORGANIZATION	ARITHMETIC MEAN
Affective	
This work organization means a lot to me	**4,17**
I feel the problems of the work organization in which I work as my own	**3,75**
I do not have a strong sense of belonging to the work organization in which I work	**2,49**
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this work organization	**3,89**
I do not feel emotionally attached to this work organization	**3,08**
Instrumental	
At this moment, staying in this work organization is both a need and a desire for me.	**3,78**
One of the negative consequences of leaving this work organization would be the absence of a realistic alternative.	**3,08**
At this point it would be difficult for me to leave organization I work for, even if I wanted to.	**3,54**
Too much would be disrupted in my life if I decided to leave this work organization right now.	**3,52**
I feel that I have too few options to consider about leaving this organization	**3,03**
Normative	
I would not leave this work organization right now, because I feel an obligation to the people in it	**3,26**
I owe a lot to this work organization	**3,30**
Even if it were an advantage for me, I feel that it would not be right to leave this work organization now	**3,03**
I have no feeling obligations to stay with the current employer	**2,39**
This work organization deserves my loyalty	**3,66**

Analyzing the data from Table 4, it can be seen that in the responses of the respondents, the claim within the affective dimension of loyalty "This work organization means a lot to me" had the highest value, where the arithmetic mean of the claim was 4.17; while the lowest value was within the normative dimension of loyalty for the statement "I do not feel any obligation to stay with my current employer", where the arithmetic mean was 2.39 on a scale of 1 to 5. The statement "I would be very happy if I will spend the rest of my career in this work organization" 3.89; "At this moment, staying in this work organization is both a need and a desire for me" 3.78; "I feel the problems of the organization where I work as my own" 3.75 and "This work organization deserves my loyalty" 3.66.

Also, looking at the total values of each component, it is observed that the affective component dominates 17.38; so it can be concluded that a large percentage of respondents are very attached to the organization they work in, identify with it and work in that organization because they want to. However, we should not ignore the total result of the instrumental component of 16.95, which indicates that a larger percentage of respondents remain in the organization out of necessity and due to awareness of the cost of leaving the organization. The lowest total value of the normative component 15.64 does not favor the organizations where the respondents work, because it indicates that a large percentage of respondents do not have a developed sense of loyalty, so it

can be concluded that organizations need to pay more attention to building quality long-term relationships with their employees.
The respondent's intention to remain in the organization was assessed through a scale of five statements related to behaviors related to seeking new employment. When filling out the scale, the respondents were asked to estimate how much they agree or disagree with the statements on a Likert-type scale from 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (completely agree) for each statement.

Table 5. Intention to stay in the organization (Authors)

EVALUATE	1 - Strongly disagree	2 - Disagree	3 - No opinion	4 - Agree	5 - Strongly agree
I think that in the next year I will be actively looking for a new job	**57%**	**9,4%**	**17,7%**	**6,8%**	**9,1%**
I am thinking about leaving my current company	**55,8%**	**9,4%**	**16,6%**	**11,7%**	**6,5%**
I will change my job as soon as I have the opportunity	**47,2%**	**10,6%**	**19,6%**	**14,3%**	**8,3%**
I am following competitions that are looking for specialists of my profile	**49%**	**10,6%**	**14,7%**	**13,2%**	**12,5%**
I am currently actively looking for another job	**67,2%**	**6,8%**	**12,5%**	**8,6%**	**4,9%**

Looking at table 5, it can be seen that the respondents' answers to all five statements are dominated by answers that show that the largest percentage of respondents, 67.2%, are not actively looking for a job, nor do they actively think of looking for a new job in the next year, 57%. These data indicate that the respondents have no intention of leaving the organizations where they work. However, we should not ignore the fact that 32.6% of respondents mostly or completely agree that they will change jobs as soon as they have the opportunity, because this data shows that a lot of respondents are not completely satisfied with the organizations they work in and that they currently have no choice to they work in a better workplace.

CONCLUSION

When entering an organization, each person brings something of their own, so the individual differences of an individual affect work behavior and work performance. Personal characteristics are manifested on the professional level in different ways - in the form of a dominant form of motivation for work, through a positive or negative attitude towards work, the quality of the performance of a certain job, readiness to improve professional skills, participation in teamwork, but also in the perception of one's own work role, professions, as well as organizations as a whole. The strength of each personality is in the way a person will behave in certain social situations and how others will perceive him. The research conducted in this paper, which deals with the relationship between personality traits from the five-factor model and work behavior, has shown that based on these personality traits, different aspects of work behavior can be predicted. Motivation at work, job satisfaction, counterproductive behavior, teamwork and work success are just some of the constructs that are related to the above five factors. Given that conscientiousness, agreeableness and emotional stability mark the characteristics associated with prosocial behavior, it can be concluded that such persons will have a good work performance and work for the benefit of the organization, which implies that the personality characteristics of employees directly affect their work in the organization.

Every person strives for a pleasant environment and positive communication. In such conditions, he feels relaxed, more ready and able to work. When the situation at the workplace is not like that, interest in work is lost, motivation decreases and dissatisfaction appears. Every organization should direct its work so that it strives for positive energy, employee satisfaction, good working conditions and fair remuneration, which lead to the creation of long-term loyal relations with employees. Employees who are adequately motivated and satisfied with their careers become loyal to their organization, which contributes to increasing their engagement at work.

Human resource management practices that provide employees with a positive work environment and opportunities for voice, participation, autonomy, and decision-making power positively influence employee satisfaction. Based on established relationships between personality characteristics and career satisfaction factors, it is possible to design such employee trainings in which the influence of undesirable ones would be reduced, that is, the presence of desirable personality traits would be developed and supported. In addition, based on the obtained research results, and within the selection process, it is possible to emphasize those personality traits, as well as factors of the structure of work motivation, which are desirable in a given organizational context. Internal motivation is influenced by the ability to find satisfaction and fulfillment at work and to gain a sense of self-fulfillment through work. Practices such as training and development and skill-based pay systems, job enrichment, employee empowerment, and employee participation can directly influence intrinsic motivation and personal achievement. Bearing in mind the above, it can be concluded that the general hypothesis that achieving a balance between the personality characteristics of employees, motivational factors and organizational values is the basis for increasing the work efficiency of employees, creating the concept of employee loyalty and achieving a competitive advantage in the market has been proven.

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PRETHODNA SAOPŠTENJA
PRELIMINARY COMMUNICATION

Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 26.04.2023.
Rad odobren: 01.06.2023.

UDK 347.736/.739:341.96(094.5)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330091B
COBISS.RS-ID 138848001
Prethodno saopštenje

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Kako je nesporno da poravnanje zaključeno u upravnom postupku ima građanskopravno dejstvo, postavlja se kao važno pitanje da li se poravnanje može smatrati dvostranim pravnim poslom. Ukoliko stranka smatra da je poravnanje zaključeno u zabludi ili pod uticajem prinude ili prevare, može ga pobijati jedino odgovarajućom građanskom tužbom pred nadležnim sudom, u parnici.
S obzirom na pravnu prazninu smatramo da je za potpuno regulisanje ove materije i pravnu sigurnost u određenoj mjeri neophodna primjena instituta građanskog prava i sudske prakse.

Ključne riječi: *poravnanje, sporazum stranaka, sporni odnos, zaključak, izvršni akt*

Jel klasifikacija: *K23*

UVOD

Sporazum o poravnanju u upravnom postupku je sporazum koji nije karakterističan za upravni postupak, koji je u načelu vansporni pravni proces. Kako se radi o netipičnom sporazumu, Zakon o opštem upravnom postupku reguliše samo osnovna pitanja, koja se tiču poravnanja, ostavljajući određene dileme u pogledu njegove praktične primjene.
Sporna pitanja se naročito odnose na mogućnost pobijanja zaključenog poravnanja, o čemu Zakon o opštem upravnom postupku ne sadrži ni jednu odredbu, što ostavlja prostor za različita tumačenja, kako u pogledu sredstava, tako i u pogledu mogućih razloga.
Kako je nesporno da poravnanje zaključeno u upravnom postupku ima građanskopravno dejstvo postavlja se kao važno pitanje da li se poravnanje može smatrati dvostranim ugovorom i da li se na njega mogu primjenjivati odredbe Zakona o obligacionim odnosima.
S obzirom na pravnu prazninu smatramo da je za potpuno regulisanje ove materije i pravnu sigurnost u određenoj mjeri neophodna primjena instituta građanskog prava i sudske prakse.

1. POJAM PORAVNANJA

Poravnanje je sporazum kojim se, uzajamnim popuštanjem, otklanja spor ili neizvjesnost stranaka u jednom pravnom odnosu. To je sporazum zaključen između stranaka pred službenim licem koje vodi postupak. Potrebno je naglasiti da poravnanje nije karakteristično za upravni postupak, koji je u načelu vansporni pravni proces. Poravnanje je posebna vrsta ugovora, kojim stranke sporni odnos rješavaju uzajamnim popuštanjem i određuju svoja uzajamna prava i obaveze.
Poravnanje je dvostrani teretni (sinalagmatički) ugovor iz čega proističe da za taj ugovor važi isto što i za druge dvostrane teretne ugovore (Branković 2021).
Upravno poravnanje može se zaključiti samo pred prvostepenim organom i onda kada je u toku upravni postupak po žalbi pred drugostepenim organom. Ako se u vrijeme zaključenja poravnanja predmet nalazi pred drugostepenim organom radi odlučivanja po žalbi, prvostepeni organ će po službenoj dužnosti obavijestiti taj organ o zaključenom poravnanju (Fazekas 2022). Organ drugog stepena će vratiti predmet prvostepenom organu, pošto je zaključenjem poravnanja upravni postupak završen.

2. ZAKLJUČENJE PORAVNANJA

Poravnanje mora biti zaključeno u pisanoj formi o čemu nadležni organ sačinjava zapisnik.
Stranke mogu zahtijevati da im se izda ovjereni prepis zapisnika u koji je unijet njihov sporazum o poravnjanju. Ovakav zahtjev strane mogu podnijeti odmah po zaključenju poravnanja, a može i kasnije.
Poravnanje nije zaključeno ako neka stranka odbije da potpiše zapisnik u koji je unijet sporazum o poravnanju i u tom slučaju upravni postupak se nastavlja. U zapisnik treba unijeti sporazum stranaka o poravnanju i kada organ uprave ne dozvoljava to poravnanje (Schneider 2005).
Unošenje u zapisnik sporazum stranaka o poravnanju, kad ga prvostepeni organ ne dozvoljava, potrebno je da bi drugostepeni organ mogao ocijeniti pravilnost rješenja, kojim prvostepeni organ ne dozvoljava takvo poravnjenje.

3. DEJSTVO PORAVNANJA

Dejstvo poravnanja sastoji se u tome što je od trenutka njegovog zaključenja za prava i obaveze stranaka mjerodavno stanje utvrđeno poravnanjem.
Poravnanje ima snagu izvršnog rješenja. Ono, pored materijalno-pravnog dejstva jednog stranačkog ugovora, ima pravno dejstvo upravnog rješenja.
Prilikom zahtjeva za izvršenje jednog poravnanja izvršni organ ne može da ispituje podobnost poravnanja za izvršenje, jer je predmetno poravnanje već bilo podvrgnuto kontroli organa, pred kojim je sklopljeno.
Organ pred kojim je poravnanje sklopljeno, već po samom zakonu, je obavezan da primajući poravnanje na zapisnik pazi da ostvaruju ciljeve koji idu preko granice, što ih je javni poredak ili javni moral ostavio njihovoj dispoziciji.
Poravnanje, kao izvršni naslov, sklopljen je saglasno sa zakonom i može biti usmjereno samo protiv lica koje je u poravnanju učestvovalo i na obavezu koja je predmet poravnanja. Valjanost poravnanja može se pobijati samo iz razloga nedostatka volje na strani lica koje je poravnanje zaključilo.
Postupak će se obustaviti u cjelini kada se stranke poravnaju u svim spornim pitanjima datog odnosa i to je potpuno poravnanje (Taborowski 2012). Djelimično poravnanje postoji, a da se stranke sporazumiju samo o nekim spornim tačkama i tada se postupak okončava samo djelimično.

4. POBIJANJE PORAVNANJA

Zakon o opštem upravnom postupku ne daje tačan odgovor na pitanje kojim putem se upravno poravnanje može pobijati. S obzirom na sadržinu i pravnu prirodu, poravnanje se ne može poistovijetiti sa rješenjem donesenim u upravnom postupku.
A pošto se pravnana sredstva predviđena ZUP-om isključivo odnose na upravne akte, ona se ne mogu koristiti za pobijanje zaključenog poravnanja.
Protiv poravnanja se ne može voditi ni upravni spor, jer je predmet tog spora isključivo ocjena zakonitosti upravnog akta.
Razlozi zbog kojih se može pobijati upravno poravnanje nisu decidirano navedeni ni u Zakonu o opštem upravnom postupku, u kom slučaju bi se mogle uzeti u obzir da se poravnanje može pobijati zbog mana volje, odnosno, ako je zaključeno u zabludi ili pod uticajem prinude ili prevare, kao i svako drugi dvostrani pravni posao.
Poravnanje zaključeno u upravnom postupku se ne može pobijati žalbom (Jenks 1956; Pavone 2018; Longobardo 2021). Ukoliko stranka smatra da je poravnanje zaključeno u zabludi ili pod uticajem prinude ili prevare može ga pobijati jedino odgovarajućom građanskom tužbom pred nadležnim sudom, u parnici.
Poravnanje o apsolutnom ništavom poslu je ništavo (Nematov 2020).
Kao i svaki drugi ugovor poravnanje može pobijati svako treće lice koje ima pravni interes, odnosno čija su prava poravnanjem povrijeđena (Branković 2021, 19).
I sudska praksa zastupa navedeno mišljenje, a što se tiče zablude u izjavi kojom se zaključuje poravnanje, u tom pogledu važe opšta pravila o značaju zablude za punovažnost pravnih poslova.
Kako se poravnanje može pobijati samo tužbom, pojavljuje se i pitanje roka u kojem se može podnijeti tužba nadležnom sudu za poništenje poravnanja zaključenog u upravnom postupku. Upravno poravnanje ima građansko dejstvo i u pogledu rokova za podnošenje tužbe smatramo da se trebaju primijeniti odredbe Zakona o parničnom postupku).
Po navedenom zakonu tužba se može podnijeti u roku od tri mjeseca od dana saznanja za razloge pobijanja, a najkasnije u roku od pet godina od dana zaključenja poravnanja.

ZAKLJUČAK

Sporazum o poravnanju u upravnom postupku je sporazum koji nije karakterističan za upravni postupak, koji je u načelu vansporni pravni proces. Kako se radi o netipičnom sporazumu, Zakon o opštem upravnom postupku reguliše samo osnovna pitanja, koja se tiču poravnanja, ostavljajući određene dileme u pogledu njegove praktične primjene.
Sporna pitanja, se naročito odnose na mogućnost pobijanja zaključenog poravnanja, o čemu Zakon o opštem upravnom postupku ne sadrži ni jednu odredbu, što ostavlja prostor za različita tumačenja, kako u pogledu sredstava, tako i u pogledu mogućih razloga.
Kako je nesporno da poravnanje zaključeno u upravnom postupku ima građanskopravno dejstvo, postavlja se kao važno pitanje da li se poravnanje može smatrati dvostranim pravnim poslom. Ukoliko stranka smatra da je poravnanje zaključeno u zabludi ili pod uticajem prinude ili prevare, može ga se pobijati jedino odgovarajućom građanskom tužbom pred nadležnim sudom, u parnici.
S obzirom na pravnu prazninu, smatra se da je za potpuno regulisanje ove materije i pravnu sigurnost u određenoj mjeri neophodna primjena instituta građanskog prava i sudske prakse.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 26/04/2023
The paper accepted: 01/06/2023
UDK 347.736/.739:341.96(094.5)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330095B
COBISS.RS-ID 138851329
Preliminary communication

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REFUTATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE SETTLEMENT

Summary: *Although settlement is atypical for administrative proceedings, it represents an important agreement through which parties regulate disputed relations based on mutual concessions. A settlement that has been concluded and officially confirmed carries the legal force of an enforceable decision and can be executed only against the participating party. The agreement between the parties must be officially confirmed by recording the content of the reached settlement. Settlement cannot be equated in terms of content or legal nature with a decision rendered in administrative proceedings. Legal remedies provided by the Administrative Procedure Act cannot be applied to settlement since they exclusively pertain to administrative acts. No administrative dispute can be initiated against a settlement as the subject matter of such dispute solely concerns the legality assessment of that act. Given the undisputed civil legal effects of a settlement concluded in administrative proceedings, the important question arises as to whether settlement can be regarded as a bilateral legal transaction. If a party believes that the settlement was made under a mistake, duress, or fraud, it can challenge it only through an appropriate civil lawsuit filed before the competent court. Considering the legal gap, we believe that the complete regulation of this matter and legal certainty to some extent require the application of civil law principles and judicial practice.*

Key words: s*ettlement, agreement between parties, disputed relation, conclusion, enforceable act*

JEL classification: *K23*

INTRODUCTION

An agreement on settlement in administrative proceedings is an agreement that is not characteristic of administrative proceedings, which are generally non-contentious legal processes. As it is an atypical agreement, the General Administrative Procedure Act only regulates basic issues related to settlement, leaving certain dilemmas regarding its practical application. Controversial issues particularly pertain to the possibility of challenging a concluded settlement, for which the General Administrative Procedure Act does not contain any provisions, thus allowing for different interpretations, both in terms of available remedies and potential grounds.
Given that it is undisputed that a settlement concluded in administrative proceedings has civil law effects, an important question arises as to whether the settlement can be considered a bilateral contract and whether the provisions of the Law on Obligations can be applied to it. Considering the legal gap, we believe that the complete regulation of this matter and legal certainty, to some extent, require the application of civil law principles and judicial practice.

1. THE CONCEPT OF SETTLEMENT

Settlement is an agreement through which parties, by mutual concessions, resolve a dispute or uncertainty in a legal relationship. It is an agreement concluded between the parties before the official authority conducting the proceedings. It is important to emphasize that settlement is not characteristic of administrative proceedings, which are generally non-contentious legal processes. Settlement is a special type of contract through which the parties resolve a disputed relationship by mutual concessions and determine their respective rights and obligations. Settlement is a bilateral onerous (synallagmatic) contract, which means that the same principles applicable to other bilateral onerous contracts also apply to this contract (Branković 2021). Administrative settlement can only be concluded before the first-instance authority and when an administrative procedure is pending before the second-instance authority due to an appeal. If, at the time of concluding the settlement, the case is pending before the second-instance authority for a decision on the appeal, the first-instance authority will, ex officio, inform that authority about the concluded settlement (Fazekas 2022). The second-instance authority will return the case to the first-instance authority since the administrative procedure is considered concluded by the conclusion of the settlement.

2. CONCLUSION OF SETTLEMENT

Settlement must be concluded in written form, and the competent authority prepares a record of it. The parties may request a certified copy of the record in which their settlement agreement is entered. Such a request can be made immediately after the conclusion of the settlement or at a later time. The settlement is not concluded if a party refuses to sign the record in which the settlement agreement is entered, and in such case, the administrative procedure continues. The settlement agreement between the parties should be included in the record, even in cases when the first-instance authority does not permit such a settlement (Schneider 2005). Including the settlement agreement in the record when it is not permitted by the first-instance authority is necessary for the second-instance authority to assess the legality of the decision by which the first-instance authority disallows such a settlement.

3. SETTLEMENT EFFECT

The effect of the settlement lies in establishing the legally binding state of rights and obligations between the parties from the moment of its conclusion. The settlement carries the force of an enforceable decision. Besides its substantive legal effect as a contractual agreement, it also holds the legal effect of an administrative decision.

When applying for the enforcement of a settlement, the enforcing authority cannot examine the suitability of the settlement for enforcement since the settlement has already undergone scrutiny by the authority before which it was concluded.

The authority before which the settlement is concluded is already mandated by law to ensure that, in accepting the settlement on record, they uphold objectives that extend beyond the boundaries set by public order or public morality.

The settlement, as an enforceable instrument, is concluded in accordance with the law and can only be directed against the party/parties that participated in the settlement and for the obligation that is the subject of the settlement. The validity of the settlement can only be challenged on the grounds of lack of will on the part of the party that concluded the settlement.

The procedure will be fully terminated when the parties reach a settlement on all disputed issues of the given relationship, and this is called a complete settlement. Partial settlement exists when the parties agree only on certain disputed points, and then the procedure is terminated only partially.

4. REFUTATION OF SETTLEMENT

The General Administrative Procedure Act does not provide a precise answer regarding the procedure for challenging administrative settlement. Considering its content and legal nature, settlement cannot be equated with a decision rendered in the administrative procedure. Since the legal remedies provided for in the Administrative Procedure Act apply exclusively to administrative acts, they cannot be used to challenge a concluded settlement. It is also not possible to initiate an administrative dispute against a settlement because the subject matter of such a dispute is solely the assessment of the legality of an administrative act. The reasons for challenging an administrative settlement are not explicitly stated in the General Administrative Procedure Act. However, it can be considered that a settlement can be challenged due to defects in consent, such as if it was concluded under mistake, duress, or fraud, similar to any other bilateral legal transaction. An administrative settlement concluded in an administrative procedure cannot be challenged through an appeal (Jenks 1956; Pavone 2018; Longobardo 2021). If a party believes that the settlement was concluded under mistake, duress, or fraud, they can only challenge it through an appropriate civil lawsuit before the competent court, in litigation.

A settlement regarding an absolutely void transaction is itself void (Nematov 2020).

Like any other contract, a settlement can be challenged by any third party who has a legal interest or whose rights have been violated by the settlement (Branković 2021, 19).

The case law also supports the mentioned opinion, and regarding the mistake in the statement by which the settlement is concluded, general rules regarding the significance of mistake for the validity of legal transactions apply.

Since a settlement can only be challenged through a lawsuit, the question of the time limits for filing a lawsuit to annul a settlement concluded in an administrative procedure arises. As administrative settlement has civil effects, we believe that the provisions of the Law on Civil Procedure should be applied regarding the time limits for filing a lawsuit.

According to the mentioned law, a lawsuit can be filed within three months from the day of becoming aware of the grounds for challenging, but no later than five years from the day of concluding the settlement.

CONCLUSION

Settlement agreement in administrative proceedings is an agreement that is not typical for administrative proceedings, which are generally non-contentious legal processes. As it is a non-typical agreement, the Law on General Administrative Procedure regulates only basic issues related to settlements, leaving certain dilemmas regarding its practical application.

Controversial issues particularly arise regarding the possibility of challenging a concluded settlement, as the Law on General Administrative Procedure does not contain any provisions regarding this matter, which leaves room for different interpretations, both in terms of remedies and possible grounds for challenging.

Given that it is undisputed that a settlement concluded in an administrative procedure has civil law implications, an important question arises as to whether the settlement can be considered a bilateral legal transaction. If a party believes that the settlement was concluded under mistake, duress, or fraud, it can only challenge it through an appropriate civil lawsuit before the competent court.

Considering the legal gap, it is considered necessary to apply the institutions of civil law and judicial practice to fully regulate this matter and ensure legal certainty to some extent.

As it is indisputable that the settlement concluded in the administrative procedure has a civil law effect, the important question is whether the settlement can be considered a bilateral legal transaction. If the party believes that the settlement was concluded in error or under the influence

of coercion or fraud, it can only challenge it with an appropriate civil lawsuit before the competent court, in litigation.
Considering the legal gap, it is considered that for the complete regulation of this matter and legal certainty to a certain extent, the application of the institute of civil law and judicial practice is necessary.

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PREGLEDNI RADOVI

REVIEW

Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 12.04.2023.
Rad odobren: 24.05.2023.

UDK 005.322:330.143.12
DOI 10.7251/POS2330101S
COBISS.RS-ID 138848257
Pregledni rad

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DOPRINOS KONTROLNOG OKRUŽENJA USPJEŠNOM UPRAVLJANJU PROMJENAMA

Rezime: *Cilj rada je da se kroz uvid u veliki broj istraživanja, sprovedenih širom svijeta, pokaže da postoji pozitivna korelativna veza između kontrolnog okruženja i uspješnosti upravljanja promjenama. Sintetizujući nalaze velikog broja autora i istraživanja pokazalo se da snažno kontrolno okruženje ima značajan uticaj na kvalitet sistema internih kontrola, kao i na način na koji organizacija upravlja poslovanjem pa tako i promjenama. Ovaj doprinos zavisi od vida organizacione kulture. Ukoliko su fleksibilne, prilagodljive, zasnovane na otvorenoj komunikaciji, timskom radu, učenju na greškama, stalnom unapređenju i adekvatnom liderstvu, organizacione kulture mogu olakšati i podstaći prihvatanje promjena. U suprotnom, one su značajna prepreka uspješnom upravljanju promjenama. Zaključak ovog rada jeste da kontrolno okruženje predstavlja izuzetno značajan i specifičan skup resursa koji može višestruko pomoći organizacijama u njihovoj težnji da se brzo prilagode promjenama iz internog i eksternog okruženja i tako ostvare svoje ciljeve. Oslanjanje na kontrolno okruženje je u skladu sa pristupom „efektuacije“ koji podrazumijeva da se na promjene ne gleda kao na rizike koje treba izbjegavati po svaku cijenu, već kao na šanse i prilike koje se mogu iskoristiti polazeći od postojećih resursa, kao što je i kontrolno okruženje sa svim svojim elementima. Stvarajući proaktivnu i fleksibilnu kulturu koja cijeni upravljanje rizicima, organizacije mogu uspješnije upravljati promjenama i zaštititi svoje zaposlene, kupce i ostale zainteresovane strane.*

Ključne riječi: *promjene, rizici, kontrolno okruženje, organizaciona kultura, efektuacija*

JEL klasifikacija: *M14, M19, M49*

UVOD

Svijet u kome živimo karakterišu sve brže, neizvjesnije, složenije i višeznačnije promjene. Postojeći modeli i pristupi upravljanju takođe moraju da se mijenjaju i prilagođavaju novim okolnostima. Brojni autori su se bavili problematikom promjena i na koji način njima upravljati (Schaffer i Thomson 1992; Abrahamson 2000; Gilley i Maycunich 2000; Cope 2003; Hansen i Kontoghiorghes 2004; Denning 2005; Gilley i McMillan i Gilley 2009; Năstase i Giuclea i Bold 2012). Jedan od pristupa jeste fokus na ciljeve/efekte i pokušaj da se obezbijede resursi kako bi se ti ciljevi ostvarili. Drugi pristup, poznat kao „efektuacija“, je onaj u kome se polazi od postojećih resursa sa kojima svaka organizacija raspolaže, a onda se na osnovu njih nastoje ostvariti najbolji mogući efekti (Sarasvathy 2001). Polazeći od pristupa efektuacije, ovaj rad razmatra kontrolno okruženje kao jednu od sve važnijih pretpostavki koje mogu značajno doprinijeti upravljanju promjenama i rizicima koji ih prate.

U literaturi i praksi je već opšteprihvaćeno da je kontrolno okruženje neophodno za uspješnu primjenu internih kontrola (Supriyanto i Deden i Mohd Haizam i Obsatar 2021; Liu i Nie i Huang 2018), a da su interne kontrole nužne za uspješno upravljanje i ostvarivanje ciljeva organizacije. Veliki broj autora je u svojim istraživanjima pokazao postojanje pozitivne korelacije između kontrolnog okruženja (organizacione kulture) i uspješnosti poslovanja (Flamholtza 2001; Sackmann 2011; Graham i Grennan i Harvey i Rajgopal 2022; Waal 2010; Shahzad et al. 2012; Xiaoming i Junchen 2012; Owoyemi i Ekwoaba 2014). Neki od istraživača su ispitivali vezu između kontrolnog kruženja (organizacione kulture) i uspješnosti upravljanja promjenama (Rashid i Sambasivan i Rahman 2003; Schein 2003; Hansen i Kontoghiorghes 2004; Mosadegh Rad 2006; Daft 2008; Cameron i Quinn 2011; Uzkurt i Kumar, Kimzan i Eminoğlu 2013; Naranjo-Valencia i Jiménez-Jiménez i Sanz-Valle 2016; Bernardes et al. 2020). Svi oni se slažu da sposobnost organizacije da se prilagodi promjenama u velikoj mjeri zavisi od njihove organizacione kulture te da organizacije, koje odlikuje razvijena, fleksibilna i prilagodljiva organizaciona kultura, uspješnije upravljaju promjenama i ostvaruju bolje poslovne rezultate.

U svom prethodnom istraživanju, Stojanović je ukazala da nivoi znanja, iskustva, interesovanja i svijesti u Bosni i Hercegovini nisu na nivou koji je potreban da bi se shvatio značaj kontrolnog okruženja i da bi mu se pridala dužna pažnja (Stojanović 2020). Pretpostavka od koje je autor pošao u svom istraživanju jeste da kontrolno okruženje i organizaciona kultura predstavljaju značajan skup resursa koji su ključni za uspješno upravljanje promjenama. Stoga, cilj ovog rada je bio da kroz sintezu istraživanja, sprovedenih širom svijeta, pokaže da postoji pozitivna korelativna veza između kontrolnog okruženja, tj. organizacione kulture i uspješnosti upravljanja promjenama te da snažno kontrolno okruženje može višestruko pomoći organizacijama da se brzo prilagode promjenama iz internog i eksternog okruženja i tako ostvare svoje ciljeve.

1. METODOLOGIJA ISTRAŽIVANJA

U procesu testiranja postavljenih hipoteza, autor ovog rada je primijenio standardne naučne metode kao što su: opis, analiza i sinteza, induktivne i deduktivne metode, apstrakcija i konkretizacija, kao i metodu poređenja.

Tokom „desk" istraživanja koje je sprovedeno u svrhu ovog rada, autor je analizirao relevantnu literaturu iz oblasti: internih kontrola, kontrolnog okruženja, organizacione kulture, upravljanja rizicima i upravljanja promjenama. Relevantna naučna istraživanja i studije, kao i druge izvore koji su direktno ili indirektno povezani sa temom rada. Na osnovu uporedne analize i sinteze svih prikupljenih izvora, autor je uspeo da dođe do zajedničkih pokazatelja i opštih zaključaka u vezi sa definisanim hipotezama i ciljevima.

2. REZULTATI I DISKUSIJA

2.1 Uloga i značaj kontrolnog okruženja

Imajući u vidu sve brže i intenzivnije promjene, sve veću složenost poslovanja, sve rigoroznije zakonske zahtjeve, očekivanja akcionara, zahtjeve za sprečavanje nepravilnosti i prevara te potrebu da se zaštite imovine i resursi organizacije, visok nivo transparetnosti i kontrola je imperativ. Interne kontrole osiguravaju da poslovni procesi budu organizovani i realizovani na način koji minimizira rizik i osigurava integritet poslovanja. One obezbjeđuju usklađenost poslovnih procesa sa standardima i zakonskim zahtjevima, čime se, takođe, smanjuje mogućnost zloupotreba i prevara te se minimizira rizik od gubitka imovine i resursa. Da bi se uspješno primijenile, internim kontrolama je neophodno adekvatno kontrolno okruženje. To znači da je kontrolno okruženje ključni faktor koji omogućava internim kontrolama da se primjenjuju na pravi način, ali i uspješno upravlja rizicima kako bi se postigli ciljevi organizacije.

Međunarodni standardi profesionalne prakse interne revizije definišu kontrolno okruženje kao: „Stav i aktivnosti odbora i rukovodstva u pogledu značaja kontrola u organizaciji" (IIA 2016, 29). Kontrolno okruženje osigurava disciplinu i strukturu neophodnu za postizanje primarnih ciljeva sistema interne kontrole, a čine ga: integritet i etičke vrijednosti, filozofija i stil rukovođenja, struktura organizacije, raspodjela ovlašćenja i odgovornosti, politike i prakse upravljanja ljudskim resursima i stručnost osoblja. Kontrolno okruženje predstavlja širi okvir koji obuhvata organizacionu kulturu, politike, procedure i prakse, koje utiču na način upravljanja organizacijom. Prema COSO-ovom modelu upravljanja rizicima preduzeća (ERM model), upravljanje i kultura su jedan od pet ključnih elemenata modela, koji zajedno doprinose uspostavljanju efektivnog procesa upravljanja rizicima u organizaciji.

Veza između kvaliteta kontrolnog okruženja, internih kontrola, upravljanja rizicima i uspješnosti poslovanja je bila predmet velikog broja istraživanja. Iako su ekonomisti tradicionalno tvrdili da razlike u rezultatima poslovanja preduzeća proizlaze iz proizvodnih inputa, od nedavno su pojedinci počeli da ukazuju na činjenicu da se najveće razlike u uspjehu među firmama trebaju tražiti u nevidljivim silama koje postoje unutar samih preduzeća (Syverson 2011, 360; Backus 2015, 39).

Postoje autori koji u svojim istraživanjima (Supriyanto i Deden i Mohd Haizam i Obsatar 2021, 6038) navode da je kontrolno okruženje najvažnija i osnovna komponenta sistema internih kontrola. Stoga, se prilikom projektovanja internih kontrola, radi stvaranja dobre korporativne upravljačke prakse, prethodno mora kreirati snažno kontrolno okruženje, jer bez njega druge komponente kontrole, koliko god bile dobre, neće značiti ništa u postizanju ciljeva internih kontrola, dobrog korporativnog upravljanja i njegove svrhe koja se ogleda u postizanju opštih ciljeva organizacije. Drugi autori su, takođe, u svojim istraživanjima (Liu i Nie i Huang 2018, 249) prepoznali kontrolno okruženje kao veoma važan element interne kontrole u preduzeću koji igra vitalnu ulogu u sprovođenju interne kontrole i ima dubok uticaj na opstanak i razvoj preduzeća.

Autorica Sackmann (Sackmann 2011, 216-218) je identifikovala čak 55 naučnih radova koji proučavaju odnos između organizacione kulture i uspješnosti i ukazuju na njihovu direktnu povezanost. Jedno od njih je istraživanje autora Flamholtza čiji su rezultati pokazali da postoji statistički značajna veza (na nivou 0,05) između kulture i finansijskog učinka (mjereno „EBIT-om" ili zaradom prije kamata i poreza) (Flamholtza 2001, 268). Istraživanje koje su izvršili autori Graham i Grennan i Harvey i Rajgopal, među 1,348 predzeća u Sjevernoj Americi, pokazalo je da više od polovine viših izvršnih direktora vjeruje kako je korporativna kultura jedna od tri najvažnija nosioca vrijednosti firme, dok 84% njih vjeruje da bi poboljšanje korporativne kulture uvećalo vrijednost njihove firme (Graham i Grennan i Harvey i Rajgopal 2022, 552). I mnogi drugi istraživači kao što su Waal (Waal 2010, 5-6; 32-33;), zatim Shahzad (Shahzad i saradnici 2012, 975), zatim Xiaoming i Junchen (Xiaoming i Junchen 2012, 31-32) i Owoyemi i Ekwoaba (Owoyemi i Ekwoaba 2014, 168) tvrde da je snažna organizaciona kultura primarna determinanta u stvaranju bolje organizacione uspješnosti i održive konkurentske prednosti.

Međutim, neki autori ističu da ovaj doprinos ne postoji u svakom slučaju, već da on zavisi od vida organizacione kulture. U tom smislu, Ogbonna i Haris pokazuju u svom radu da birokratizacija smanjuje kratkoročnu profitabilnost, otežava dugoročni rast i može čak da utiče na opstanak organizacije (Ogbonna i Haris 2000, 782). Sa druge strane, kompetitivne i inovativne kulture, koje su osjetljive na spoljašnje uslove, imaju snažan i pozitivan uticaj na performanse organizacije. Do sličnog zaključka su došli Garg i Ma koji su istraživali uticaj kulturnih razlika na organizacioni uspjeh tri različite vrste organizacija (u stranom vlasništvu, zajednička ulaganja i u domaćem (kineskom vlasništvu) (Garg i Ma 2005, 268-69). Rezultati su pokazali da je uspjeh preduzeća u stranom vlasništvu znatno bolji, što se pripisuje elementima kontrolnog okruženja, kao što su timski rad, odgovornost i efikasnost te stil upravljanja.

Niz istraživača i autora je pokazao da postoji značajan uticaj upravljanja rizicima preduzeća na uspješnost organizacija (Nocco i Stulz 2006; Gordon i Loeb i Tseng 2009; Hoyt i Liebenberg 2011;

Thomya i Saenchaiyathon 2015), a organizaciona kultura jedan od osnovnih elemenata ovog procesa. Prema tome, jasno je da kvalitet sistema internih kontrola, kao i procesa upravljanja rizicima, u velikoj mjeri zavisi od kvaliteta kontrolnog okruženja, kao i da svi skupa doprinose boljim poslovnim rezultatima i dugoročnoj održivosti. Naime, kontrolno okruženje može pomoći u smanjenju rizika u organizaciji i doprinijeti uspješnom upravljanju rizicima, što se obezbjeđuje tako što se rizici lakše prepoznaju, a politike i procedure su osmišljene na način da efektivno doprinose prevenciji, otkrivanju i reagovanju na rizike. Na ovaj način se minimiziraju neželjene posljedice koje bi mogle ugroziti organizaciju. S druge strane, organizacije s slabim kontrolnim okruženjem često se suočavaju s više rizika, jer ne posjeduju dovoljno jasne smjernice za prevenciju i postupanje sa rizicima. Ovo je veoma važno imati na umu danas kada su promjene sve brže i intenzivnije, a rizici sve prisutniji.

2.2 Organizacione promjene i organizaciona kultura

Iako se promjene često poistovjećuju sa rizicima, među njima ipak postoji suptilna razlika. Generalno gledano, svako odstupanje od plana, posebno ako se odnosi na obim posla, vremenski raspored i/ili budžet jeste „promjena“. Međutim, ako možemo da ih predvidimo, onda možemo i da upravljamo njima i tada govorimo o rizicima. Ako ne možemo da ih predvidimo, onda se radi o neočekivanim promjenama i sve što možemo jeste da se njima bavimo onda kada se dese.
Neki autori (Năstase i Giuclea i Bold 2012, 15) ukazuju da su organizacione promjene rezultat odgovora na eksterne izazove makro i mikro okruženja, ali i one interne izazove, poput inovacija, kriza, konflikata, kako bi se organizacija prilagodila razvojnim zahtjevima društva u cjelini. Upravljanje promjenama zahtjeva stvaranje *kulture promjene* što znači da se organizacija time bavi svakodnevno, a ne samo povremeno.
S obzirom na to da nisu sve promjene iste, radi lakšeg razumijevanja i upravljanja njima, autori ih često grupišu u nekoliko kategorija. Tako, Gilley, McMillan i Gilley sa evolucijskog aspekta dijele promjene na tranzicione, transformacijske i razvojne promjene (Gilley i McMillan i Gilley 2009, 39). *Tranzicione promjene* predstavljaju male i postepene, čak inkrementalne, promjene ljudi, politika, procedura, tehnologija, kulture ili struktura. Ove promjene obično inicira i implementira rukovodstvo za pojedine poslovne jedinice, odjele, odjeljenja ili čitavu organizaciju, kada nastane neki konkretni problem kog treba riješiti. Rješavanje prioritetnih problema dovodi do brzog ostvarivanja ciljeva na kratkoročnoj osnovi, a to jača motivaciju da se napori prošire. *Transformacijske promjene* su radikalne promjene u osnovnim pretpostavkama, duboko ukorijenjenim načinima razmišljanja, kulturi, strategiji ili drugim značajnim organizacionim paradigmama. Iako uspješna transformacijska promjena rezultira pozitivnim efektima koji podrazumijevaju veću konkurentnost, tj. sposobnost organizacije da se razlikuje od drugih na tržištu, veći broj studija je pokazao da u 75-90% slučajeva organizacije ne uspijevaju da uspješno sprovedu transformacijske promjene (Cope 2003, 10). Razlog leži u njihovoj složenosti i potrebi da se pažljivo isplaniraju i sprovedu kako bi se minimizirao rizik i maksimizirala korist. *Razvojna promjena* proizlazi iz filozofije kontinuiranog rasta i razvoja koji se obezbjeđuje kroz tzv. dinamičku stabilnost - kulturu kontinuirane dinamičke promjene kojom se, prema nekim istraživanjima (Abrahamsonu 2000, 75), ipak, može upravljati. Razvojne promjene nastaju kada organizacije kontinuirano skeniraju svoje unutrašnje i vanjsko okruženje kako bi stvorile uslove rada koji podstiču i nagrađuju individualne inovacije, rast i razvoj, što znači onda kada njeguju odgovarajuće interno okruženje i organizacionz kulturu. Ovo potvrđuju istraživači Hansen i Kontoghiorghes koji su u svom istraživanju došli do zaključka da je za brzo i uspješno prilagođavanje promjenama potrebno imati okruženje čiji su strateški prioriteti kvalitet, izvrsnost i kontinuirano unapređenje (Hansen i Kontoghiorghes 2004, 34).
Ideja o povezanosti organizacione kulture i uspješnosti upravljanja promjenama nije nova i njom se bavilo više autora. Tako je Edgar Schein razvio teoriju „kulture organizacije“ koja opisuje kako

kultura organizacije može uticati na otpor prema promjenama. On je istakao da kultura organizacije može biti prepreka ili poticaj za promjene. Prema nekim istraživanjima (Scheinu 2004, 394-402) kultura organizacije može doprinijeti efikasnosti promjena ukoliko ima u sebi ugrađene pretpostavke: *proaktivnog rješavanja problema i učenja, posvećenosti učenju kako se uči, povjerenja u ljude i ljudsku prirodu, vjerovanja da se okruženjem može upravljati, posvećenosti istini kroz pragmatični pristup i istraživanje, usmjerenosti ka budućnosti, posvećenosti otvorenoj komunikaciji, posvećenosti raznolikosti, posvećenosti sistemskom razmišljanju, posvećenost analizi kako bi se razumjela i poboljšala kultura*.

Cameron i Quinn su razvili model „Competing Values Framework“ (CVF model) koji povezuje organizacionu kulturu s uspješnošću promjena. Prema CVF modelu, organizaciona kultura se može podijeliti na četiri tipa (Cameron i Quinn 2006, 37-45): *kultura hijerarhije, tržišna kultura, kultura članstva i kultura adaptacije*. Svaki od ovih tipova kulture ima različite vrijednosti, ciljeve i načine djelovanja. Cameron i Quinn tvrde da organizacije s različitim tipovima kulture imaju različitu spremnost i uspjeh u upravljanju promjenama. Prema njihovim istraživanjima, organizacije s *kulturom hijerarhije* teško se prilagođavaju promjenama, jer preferiraju stabilnost i sigurnost. *Tržišne organizacije* su otvorenije prema promjenama jer se fokusiraju na inovacije i konkurentnost. *Kulture članstva* su usmjerene na zajedništvo i saradnju te su otvorenije za promjene koje poboljšavaju timski rad. *Kulture adaptacije* su najprilagodljivije promjenama, jer su orijentisane na brzo prilagođavanje okolini. Cameron i Quinn tvrde da je važno da organizacije razumiju svoju kulturu kako bi razvile strategije za upravljanje promjenama.

Richard L. Daft je u svojoj knjizi „Organization Theory and Design“ istraživao kako organizacione strukture, procesi i kulture mogu uticati na upravljanje promjenama u organizaciji. Autor je mišljenja da organizacione strukture i procesi mogu biti prepreka za promjene u organizaciji ako su previše centralizovani ili hijerarhijski organizovani. Osim toga, kultura organizacije može takođe biti prepreka za promjene ako nije otvorena za inovacije ili eksperimentisanje. Da bi se uspješno upravljalo promjenama, Daft je predložio da organizacije trebaju stvoriti adaptibilne strukture i procese koji omogućavaju brže prilagođavanje novim situacijama (Daft 2007, 382-387), a to podrazumijeva: *minimiziranje granica između različitih organizacionih dijelova*, *jednakost i povjerenje su primarne vrijednosti* i *kultura ohrabruje preduzimanje rizika, promjene i unapređenja*.

Mosadegh Rad je sproveo istraživanje (Mosadegh Rad 2006, 606) kako bi utvrdio uticaj kulture i njenih vrijednosti na uspješnost implementacije TQM-a u univerzitetiskim bolnicama u Isfahanu (Iran). Njegovo istraživanje je pokazalo da su bolnice sa organskom organizacionom strukturom i srednje snažnom organizacionom kulturom imale veći uspjeh u uvođenju TQM-a, nego mehanističke i birokratske bolnice s slabom organizacionom kulturom. Mnogi autori (Bernardes i saradnici 2020, 1) su istraživali odnos između fleksibilne i hijerarhijske organizacione kulture, područja unapređenja kvaliteta i autentičnih liderskih vještina u kanadskim zdravstvenim ustanovama. Njihovo istraživanje je pokazalo da fleksibilne organizacione kulture utiču na usvajanje autentičnog vođstva, participativnog modela upravljanja i unapređuju kvalitet.

Rashid, Sambasivan i Rahman su sproveli istraživanje nad 258 proizvodnih preduzeća u Maleziji (Rashid i Sambasivan i Rahman 2003, 161) s ciljem da istraže uticaj organizacione kulture na stavove prema organizacionim promjenama. Njihovi rezultati su pokazali da organizaciona kultura utiče na stavove prema promjenama te da različite vrste organizacione kulture imaju različite stepene prihvatanja organizacionih promjena, dok određena vrsta organizacione kulture može olakšati prihvatanje promjena, druge vrste kulture to ne mogu. Doprinos ovog istraživanja je u tome što, njegovi nalazi potvrđuju rezultate prethodnih studija, koje se ne odnose na zapadni poslovni ambijent, a koje ukazuju na važnost kulture u procesima organizacionih promjena.

Zanimljivo istraživanje u bankarskom sektoru su sproveli Uzkurt, Kumar, Kimzan i Eminoğlu (Uzkurt i Kumar i Kimzan i Eminoğlu 2013, 92) sa ciljem da ispitaju uticaj inovacija na vezu između organizacione kulture i uspješnosti poslovanja banaka, što je od posebnog značaja za banke koje žele postići veću konkurentnost tako što će reagovati na promjene u okruženju uspješno uvodeći inovacije. Autori zaključuju da su mehanizmi za poticanje i razvijanje inovativne organizacione kulture oni koji će vjerovatnije doprinijeti uvođenju, usvajanju i širenju inovacija, što će za posljedicu imati bolje poslovne rezultate. Slično istraživanje su napravili Naranjo-Valencia, Jiménez-Jiménez i Sanz-Valle na uzorku španskih industrijskih preduzeća (Naranjo-Valencia i Jiménez-Jiménez i Sanz-Valle 2016, 1). Došli su do istih rezultata, tj. pokazali su da kultura može podsticati inovacije, kao i učinke kompanije, ali i biti prepreka za oboje, u zavisnosti od vrijednosti koje promoviše kultura. Utvrdili su da je adaptibilna kultura najbolji predskazivač inovacija i dobrih poslovnih rezultata.

2.3 Kako odgovoriti na izazove koje promjene nose?

Kao što je prethodno pomenuto, mnoge promjene, posebno one transformacijske, u većini slučajeva ne uspijevaju. Razlog za to je, prije svega, „ljudski faktor“ i brojni otpori koji se javljaju zbog loše komunikacije, nerazumijevanja ciljeva koji se žele postići i/ili nedovoljnih resursa (novca, vremena, znanja i sposobnosti, volje, itd).

Kada se suoče sa promjenama, organizacije, u suštini, imaju na raspolaganju dva različita pristupa: (1) proces „uzročnosti“, u kome se polazi od zadatog efekta, a pažnja se usmjerava na izbor načina kako da se ostvari taj efekat i (2) proces „efektuacije“, u kome se polazi od raspoloživih resursa, a zatim se pažnja usmjerava na iznalaženje različitih efekata koje je moguće ostvariti sa postojećim resursima (Sarasvathy 2001, 245). Proces „uzročnosti“ je više svojstven tradicionalnom pristupu upravljanju rizicima, dok je proces „efektuacije“ prikladniji za upravljanje neočekivanim promjenama koje nije moguće procijeniti sa aspekta vjerovatnoće pojavljivanja i efekata koje će imati po organizaciju. Efektuacija je, u suštini, pristup u kome se na promjene gleda kao na šanse i prilike koje se mogu iskoristiti koristeći postojeće resurse. Kontrolno okruženje nije samo skup politika, procedura i praksi koje utiču na način upravljanja organizacijom, već je to i specifičan skup resursa koji može višestruko pomoći organizacijama u njihovoj težnji da se brzo prilagode promjenama iz internog i eksternog okruženja i ostvare svoje ciljeve.

Autori se slažu da organizaciona kultura može biti značajna podrška, ali i velika prepreka uvođenju promjena. Postoje neke uobičajene greške koje organizacije prave kada pokušavaju da uvedu i implementiraju promjene, a odnose se na pojedine elemente kontrolnog okruženja. Rukovodioci vrlo često unaprijed očekuju „otpor“ čime se proizvodi negativni „pigmalion“ efekat, tj. ljudi počinju da se ponašaju upravo onako kako se to od njih očekuje (Dent i Goldberg 1999; Ford i Ford i D’Amelio 2008). Ne uzimaju se u obzir pitanja, dileme i suprotna mišljenja zaposlenih na različitim organizacionim nivoima, čime se onemogućava sagledavanje šire slike te rizika koji nužno prate svaku promjenu (Ullrich i Wieseke i Van Dick 2005; Ford i Ford i D’Amelio 2008). Promjenama se upravlja samo na izvršnom nivou. Obično se ide sa „top-down“ pristupom, u kom najviše rukovodstvo donese strategiju, osmisli nove strukture i procese, a onda očekuje da ih svi ostali, na nižim organizacionim nivoima bespogovorno sprovedu (O’Brien 2001). Upravlja se putem straha, tj. diže se panika govoreći ljudima da se moraju promijeniti jer je organizacija u krizi (Stanleigh 2008). Na ovaj način se umjesto proaktivnog djelovanja podstiče reaktivno djelovanje čime se koče kreativnost, ideje, inicijative, aktivno djelovanje. Nerijetko se zaposleni šalju na različite obuke, a zatim se očekuje da je to dovoljno za uvođenje promjena (Stanleigh 2008). Ono što se zaboravlja jeste „ton na vrhu“, tj. ukoliko lideri ne vode svojim primjerom, ne ponašaju se etično i sa integritetom, nema te obuke koja će podstaknuti ljude na promjene (Burke i Litwin, 1992; Fernandez i Rainey 2006; Gilley i McMillan i Gilley 2009). Ne daje se dovoljno vremena osoblju da prvo razumije šta se dešava i zašto pa tek onda da se upusti u promjene (Kotter 1995). Proces promjene je težak i u prosjeku je potrebno 5 do 7 godina da se promjena zaista „uvede“ u neku organizaciju. Bez odgovarajućeg okruženja, stanja svijesti i spremnosti za promjene, iluzorno je očekivati bilo kakve uspjehe, posebno u kratkom roku.

S obzirom na to da krute i birokratske kulture ne mogu da odgovore na izazove danšanjeg dinamičnog okruženja i sve bržih promjena, kontrolno okruženje bi, takođe, trebalo da bude fluidan medium koji se kontinuirano razvija i prilagođava novim zahtjevima savremenog poslovanja. U suštini, promjena kontrolnog okruženja u smjeru podsticanja otvorene komunikacije, saradnje, učenja iz grešaka, proaktivnog upravljanja rizicima i pružanja adekvatne obuke i resursa može pomoći u poboljšanju procesa upravljanja rizicima organizacije. Stvarajući kulturu koja cijeni upravljanje rizicima, organizacije mogu bolje upravljati rizicima povezanim sa promjenama i zaštititi svoje zaposlene, kupce i ostale zainteresovane strane.

ZAKLJUČAK

Organizaciona kultura, kao važan aspekt kontrolnog okruženja, odnosi se na zajedničke vrijednosti, stavove, vjerovanja i prakse koje karakterišu organizaciju i usmjeravaju ponašanje njenih zaposlenih. Veliki broj autora i istraživanja je pokazao da snažno kontrolno okruženje ima značajan uticaj na kvalitet sistema internih kontrola, kao i na način na koji organizacija pristupa upravljanju rizicima, uključujući i one povezane sa promjenama.

S obzirom na to da su promjene danas jedina konstanta, htjele to ili ne organizacije su svaki dan izložene promjenama. Način na koji reaguju na njih utiče na to da li će opstati, propasti ili napredovati. Veza između organizacione kulture i upravljanja promjenama ogleda se u tome da kultura organizacije, tj. njeno kontrolno okruženje, može ili olakšati ili otežati efikasno upravljanje rizicima tokom perioda promjene. Na primjer, okruženje koje podstiče transparentnost, komunikaciju i saradnju ima veće šanse da doprinese uspješnom upravljanju rizicima povezanim s promjenama, nego okruženje koje odlikuje stroga hijerarhijska struktura, otporna na promjene i zatvorena u sebe. U okruženju koje cijeni transparentnost i komunikaciju, zaposleni su skloniji da izraze zabrinutosti u vezi s potencijalnim rizicima povezanim s promjenama, a menadžment je skloniji slušanju i preduzimanju adekvatnih mjera za ublažavanje tih rizika. Međutim, u okruženju koje ima otpor prema promjenama, zaposleni mogu oklijevati da izraze zabrinutost i ukažu na potencijalne rizike, a stil upravljanja rukovodstva odlikuje tromost u reagovanju na te rizike, čak i ako su identifikovani.

Prema tome, razvijeno i adaptibilno kontrolno okruženje ima potencijal da pomogne organizacijama da brže i lakše identifikuju rizike povezane s promjenama i odreaguju na njih tako što će iskoristiti šanse i prilike, a izbjeći ili minimizirati opasnosti i prijetnje. Sa druge strane, nerazvijeno kontrolno okruženje i kruta organizaciona kultura mogu otežati ove napore i povećati vjerovatnoću negativnih ishoda.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 12/04/2023
The paper accepted: 24/05/2023

UDK 005.322:330.143.12
DOI 10.7251/POS2330111S
COBISS.RS-ID 138851585
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CONTRIBUTION OF THE CONTROL ENVIRONMENT TO SUCCESSFUL CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Summary: *The aim of this paper was to demonstrate, through an overview of numerous studies conducted worldwide, that there is a positive correlation between the control environment and the success of change management. By synthesizing the findings of a large number of authors and studies, it was shown that a strong control environment has a significant impact on the quality of internal control systems, as well as on the organization's approach to risk management, including those related to change. This contribution depends on the type of organizational culture. If the culture is flexible, adaptable, based on open communication, teamwork, learning from mistakes, continuous improvement, and adequate leadership, organizational cultures can facilitate and encourage acceptance of change; otherwise, they can be a significant obstacle to successful change management. The conclusion of this paper is that the control environment represents an extremely important and specific set of resources that can greatly assist organizations in their efforts to quickly adapt to changes in the internal and external environment and achieve their goals. Relying on the control environment is in line with the approach of 'effectuation,' which assumes that changes should not be viewed as risks to be avoided at all costs, but as opportunities that can be utilized based on existing resources, such as the control environment with all its elements. By creating a culture that values risk management, organizations can better manage change and protect their employees, customers, and other stakeholders.*

Key words: *change, risks, control environment, organizational culture, effectuation*

JEL classification: *M14, M19, M49*

INTRODUCTION

The world we live in is characterized by increasingly fast, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous changes. Existing management models and approaches also need to change and adapt to new circumstances. Numerous authors have dealt with the issue of changes and how to manage them (Schaffer and Thomson 1992; Abrahamson 2000; Gilley and Maycunich 2000; Cope 2003; Hansen and Kontoghiorghes 2004; Denning 2005; Gilley and McMillan and Gilley 2009; Năstase and Giuclea and Bold 2012). One approach is to focus on goals/effects and attempt to provide the resources needed to achieve those goals. Another approach, known as 'effectuation,' starts with the existing resources that every organization has and then tries to achieve the best possible effects based on them (Sarasvathy 2001). Based on the effectuation approach, this paper considers the control environment as one of the increasingly significant resources that can contribute to managing changes and the risks that accompany them.

It is widely accepted in both literature and practice that a control environment is necessary for the successful implementation of internal controls (Supriyanto and Deden and Mohd Haizam and Obsatar 2021; Liu and Nie and Huang 2018), and that internal controls are essential for successful management and achievement of organizational goals. Many authors have shown in their research the existence of a positive correlation between the control environment (organizational culture) and business performance (Flamholtz 2001; Sackmann 2011; Graham and Grennan and Harvey and Rajgopal 2022; Waal 2010, Shahzad et al. 2012; Xiaoming and Junchen 2012; Owoyemi and Ekwoaba 2014). Some researchers have examined the relationship between the control environment / organizational culture and successful change management (Rashid and Sambasivan and Rahman 2003; Schein 2003; Hansen and Kontoghiorghes 2004; Mosadegh Rad 2006; Daft 2008; Cameron and Quinn 2011; Uzkurt and Kumar and Kimzan and Eminoğlu 2013; Naranjo-Valencia and Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle 2016; Bernardes et al. 2020). All of them agree that an organization's ability to adapt to changes largely depends on its organizational culture, and that organizations with a developed, flexible, and adaptable organizational culture manage changes more successfully and achieve better business results.
In her previous research, Stojanović pointed out that the levels of knowledge, experience, interest, and awareness in Bosnia and Herzegovina are not at the level necessary to understand the importance of the control environment and give it due attention (Stojanović 2020). The basic assumption of this research is that the control environment / organizational culture represent a significant set of resources that are crucial for successful change management. Therefore, the aim of this paper was to show, through a synthesis of research conducted worldwide, that there is a positive correlation between the control environment, i.e. organizational culture and the success of change management, and that a strong control environment can greatly help organizations to quickly adapt to changes in their internal and external environment and achieve their goals.

1. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to test the hypotheses, the author of this paper applied standard scientific methods such as description, analysis, and synthesis, inductive and deductive methods, abstraction and concretization, as well as the method of comparison.
While performing the desk research, the author analysed relevant literature in the areas of internal controls, control environment, organizational culture, risk management, and change management; relevant scientific research and studies, as well as other sources that are directly or indirectly related to the topic of the paper. Based on comparative analysis and synthesis of all collected sources, the author was able to reach general conclusions regarding the defined hypotheses and objectives.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.1 The role and significance of the control environment

Given the ever faster and more intense changes, increasing business complexity, more rigorous legal requirements, shareholders' expectations, demands for preventing irregularities and frauds, and the need to protect the organization's assets and resources, a high level of transparency and control is imperative. Internal controls ensure that business processes are organized and executed in a way that minimizes risk and ensures the integrity of operations. They ensure compliance with operating standards and legal requirements, reducing the possibility of abuse and fraud, and minimizing the risk of loss of assets and resources. To be successfully applied, adequate control environment is necessary for internal controls. This means that the control environment is a key factor that enables internal controls to be applied properly, and successfully manage risks to achieve the organization's goals.

International Standards for the Professional Practice of Internal Auditing define the control environment as "the attitude and actions of the board and management regarding the significance of control within the organization" (IIA 2016, 29). The control environment provides the discipline and structure necessary to achieve the primary objectives of the internal control system and consists of: integrity and ethical values; management philosophy and operating style; organizational structure; assignment of authority and responsibility; human resource policies and practices; and staff expertise. Control environment represents a broader framework that encompasses organizational culture, policies, procedures, and practices that influence the way an organization is managed. According to the COSO Enterprise Risk Management (ERM) framework, management and culture are one of the five key elements of the model that contribute to establishing an effective risk management process in the organization.

The relationship between the quality of the control environment, internal controls, risk management, and business performance has been the subject of numerous studies. Although economists traditionally argued that differences in firm performance stem from production inputs, individuals have recently begun to point out that the greatest differences in success among firms should be sought in the invisible forces that exist within the firms themselves (Syverson 2011, 360; Backus 2015, 39).

There are authors who state in their research that the control environment is the most important and fundamental component of the internal control system (Supriyanto and Deden and Mohd Haizam and Obsatar 2021, 6038). Therefore, when designing internal controls to create good corporate governance practices, a strong control environment must be created beforehand because without it, other control components, no matter how good they are, will not mean anything in achieving the objectives of internal controls, good corporate governance, and the organization's overall objectives. Some other authors (Liu and Nie and Huang 2018, 249) have also recognized the control environment as a very important element of internal control system that plays a vital role in implementing internal control and has a profound impact on the survival and development of the company.

The author Sackmann (Sackmann 2011, 216-218) identified almost 55 scientific papers that examine the relationship between organizational culture and performance and indicate their direct connection. One of them is a study by the author Flamholtz whose results showed a statistically significant correlation (at the 0.05 level) between culture and financial performance (measured by "EBIT" or earnings before interest and taxes) (Flamholtz 2001, 268). The research conducted by the authors Graham, Grennan, Harvey and Rajgopal among 1,348 companies in North America showed that more than half of the top executives believe that corporate culture is one of the three most important value drivers for the company, while 84% of them believe that improving corporate culture would increase the value of their company (Graham and Grennan and Harvey and Rajgopal 2022, 552). And many other researchers, such as Waal (Waal 2010, 5-6; 32-33), then Shahzad (Shahzad et al. 2012, 975), then Xiaoming and Junchen (Xiaoming and Junchen 2012, 31-32), and Owoyemi and Ekwoaba (Owoyemi and Ekwoaba 2014, 168) argue that a strong organizational culture contribute to better organizational performance and sustainable competitive advantage.

However, some authors point out that this contribution does not exist in every case, but rather depends on the type of organizational culture. In this sense, Ogbonna and Harris show in their work that bureaucratization reduces short-term profitability, hinders long-term growth, and can even affect the survival of the organization (Ogbonna and Harris 2000, 782). On the other hand, competitive and innovative cultures, which are sensitive to external conditions, have a strong and positive impact on organizational performance. Similar conclusions were reached by Garg and Ma who studied the impact of cultural differences on the organizational success of three different types of organizations (foreign-owned, joint ventures, and domestic (Chinese) ownership) (Garg and Ma 2005, 268-69). The results showed that the success of foreign-owned enterprises is significantly

better, which is attributed to elements of the control environment, such as teamwork, accountability, efficiency, and management style.
A number of researchers and authors have shown that there is a significant impact of enterprise risk management on organizational performance (Nocco and Stulz 2006; Gordon and Loeb and Tseng 2009; Hoyt and Liebenberg 2011; Thomya and Saenchaiyathon 2015), and organizational culture is one of the fundamental elements of this process. Therefore, it is clear that the quality of internal control systems, as well as risk management processes, largely depends on the quality of the control environment, and all together contribute to better business results and long-term sustainability. Namely, the control environment can help reduce risks in the organization and contribute to successful risk management by recognizing risks in an easier way, and by designing policies and procedures to effectively prevent, detect, and respond to risks. In this way, unwanted consequences that could jeopardize the organization are minimized. On the other hand, organizations with weak control environments often face more risks because they do not have guidelines clear enough for preventing and dealing with risks. This is very important to keep in mind today when changes are more intense and getting faster, and risks are more and more present.

2.2 Organizational changes and organizational culture

Although changes are often equated with risks, there is still a subtle difference between them. Generally speaking, any deviation from the plan, especially if it relates to the scope of work, schedule, and/or budget, is a 'change'. However, if we can predict them, then we can manage them, and then we talk about risks. If we cannot predict them, then they are unexpected changes, and all we can do is deal with them when they happen.
Some authors (Nastase and Giuclea and Bold 2012, 15) point out that organizational changes are a result of responses to external challenges of macro and micro environments, as well as internal challenges such as innovations, crises, and conflicts, in order to adapt the organization to the developmental demands of society as a whole. Managing changes requires creating a *culture of change*, which means that the organization deals with it on a daily basis, not just occasionally.
Given that not all changes are the same, in order to understand and manage them more easily, authors often group them into several categories. Thus, Gilley, McMillan and Gilley divide changes from an evolutionary perspective into transitional, transformational, and developmental changes (Gilley and McMillan and Gilley 2009, 39). *Transitional changes* represent small and gradual, even incremental changes in people, policies, procedures, technology, culture or structure. These changes are usually initiated and implemented by executives of individual business units, departments, sections or the entire organization when a specific problem needs to be solved. Resolving priority issues leads to quick achievement of short-term goals, which fosters motivation to expand efforts. *Transformational changes* are radical changes in basic assumptions, deeply rooted ways of thinking, culture, strategy or other significant organizational paradigms. Although a successful transformational change results in positive effects that imply greater competitiveness, i.e. the ability of the organization to differentiate itself from others in the market, many studies have shown that in 75-90% of cases, organizations fail to successfully implement transformational changes (Cope 2003, 10). The reason lies in their complexity and the need to carefully plan and implement them in order to minimize risk and maximize benefit. *Developmental change* stems from the philosophy of continuous growth and development, which is ensured through the so-called dynamic stability - a culture of continuous dynamic change that, according to some researches (Abrahamson 2000, 75), can still be managed. Developmental changes arise when organizations continuously scan their internal and external environment to create working conditions that stimulate and reward individual innovations, growth and development, which means when they nurture an appropriate internal environment and organizational culture. This is confirmed by the

authors Hansen and Kontoghiorghes who, in their research, concluded that a strategic priority of quality, excellence and continuous improvement is necessary for quick and successful adaptation to change (Hansen and Kontoghiorghes 2004, 34).

The idea of the connection between organizational culture and the success of change management is not new and has been explored by several authors. Edgar Schein developed the theory of "organizational culture" which describes how organizational culture can impact resistance to change. He emphasized that organizational culture can either be a barrier or a facilitator of change. According to his research (Schein 2004, 394-402), organizational culture can contribute to the effectiveness of change if it has embedded assumptions of: *proactive problem-solving and learning, commitment to learning how to learn, trust in people and human nature, belief that the environment can be managed, commitment to truth through a pragmatic approach and inquiry, focus on the future, commitment to open communication, commitment to diversity, commitment to systems thinking, commitment to analysis to understand and improve culture*.

Cameron and Quinn developed the "Competing Values Framework" (CVF model), which links organizational culture to the success of change management. According to the CVF model, organizational culture can be divided into four types (Cameron and Quinn 2006, 37-45): *hierarchy culture, market culture, clan culture,* and *adhocracy culture*. Each of these culture types has different values, goals, and ways of operating. Cameron and Quinn argue that organizations with different types of culture have different readiness and success in managing change. According to their research, organizations with a *hierarchy culture* have difficulty adapting to change because they prefer stability and security. *Market-oriented* organizations are more open to change because they focus on innovation and competitiveness. *Clan cultures* are focused on community and collaboration, and are more open to changes that improve teamwork. *Adhocracy cultures* are the most adaptable to change because they are oriented towards rapid adaptation to the environment. Cameron and Quinn argue that it is important for organizations to understand their culture in order to develop strategies for managing change.

In his book "Organization Theory and Design", Richard L. Daft explored how organizational structures, processes, and cultures can influence change management in organizations. The author believes that organizational structures and processes can be a barrier to change in an organization if they are too centralized or hierarchical. In addition, organizational culture can also be a barrier to change if it is not open to innovation or experimentation. To successfully manage change, Daft suggests that organizations need to create adaptable structures and processes that allow for faster adaptation to new situations (Daft 2007, 382-387). This includes *minimizing boundaries between different organizational parts, valuing equality and trust, and cultivating a culture that encourages risk-taking, change, and improvement*.

Mosadegh Rad conducted a study (Mosadegh Rad 2006, 606) to determine the influence of culture and its values on the success of TQM implementation in university hospitals in Isfahan, Iran. His research showed that hospitals with an organic organizational structure and a moderately strong organizational culture had greater success in implementing TQM than mechanistic and bureaucratic hospitals with weak organizational culture. Many authors (Bernardes et al. 2020, 1) investigated the relationship between flexible and hierarchical organizational culture, quality improvement areas, and authentic leadership skills in Canadian healthcare institutions. Their research showed that flexible organizational cultures influence the adoption of authentic leadership, participative management model, and improve quality.

Rashid, Sambasivan and Rahman conducted a study on 258 manufacturing companies in Malaysia (Rashid and Sambasivan and Rahman 2003, 161) to explore the impact of organizational culture on attitudes towards organizational change. Their results showed that organizational culture influences attitudes towards change and that different types of organizational culture have different degrees of acceptance towards organizational changes; while certain types of organizational culture can facilitate acceptance of change, others cannot. The contribution of this study is that its findings

confirm the results of previous studies that do not relate to the Western business environment, but also highlight the importance of culture in the processes of organizational change.
Uzkurt, Kumar, Kimzan and Eminoğlu conducted an interesting study in the banking sector (Uzkurt and Kumar and Kimzan and Eminoğlu 2013, 92) with the aim of examining the impact of innovation on the relationship between organizational culture and the business performance of banks, which is of particular importance for banks that want to achieve greater competitiveness by successfully introducing innovations in order to respond to changes in the environment. The authors conclude that mechanisms for stimulating and developing an innovative organizational culture are more likely to contribute to the introduction, adoption and spread of innovations, which will result in better bank performance. A similar study was conducted by Naranjo-Valencia, Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle on a sample of Spanish industrial companies (Naranjo-Valencia and Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle 2016, 1). They arrived at the same results, i.e. they showed that culture can promote innovation as well as company performance, but also be a hindrance to both, depending on the values promoted by the culture. They found that an adaptable culture is the best predictor of innovation and good business results.

2.3 How to respond to the challenges that changes bring?

As previously mentioned, many changes, particularly transformatinal ones, often fail. The main reason for this is the 'human factor' and numerous resistances that arise due to poor communication, misunderstanding of the goals to be achieved and/or insufficient resources (money, time, knowledge and abilities, willingness...).
When faced with changes, organizations essentially have two different approaches available: (1) the "causation" process, in which the desired effect is the starting point, and attention is focused on choosing ways to achieve that effect; and (2) the "effectuation" process, in which available resources are the starting point, and attention is then directed towards finding different effects that can be achieved with existing resources (Sarasvathy 2001, 245). The causation process is more typical of a traditional risk management approach, while the effectuation process is more suitable for managing unexpected changes that cannot be assessed in terms of the probability of occurrence and the effects they will have on the organization. Effectuation is essentially an approach in which changes are viewed as opportunities that can be leveraged using existing resources. The control environment is not only a set of policies, procedures, and practices that affect the way an organization is managed, but it is also a specific set of resources that can greatly assist organizations in their efforts to quickly adapt to changes in the internal and external environment and achieve their goals.
The authors agree that organizational culture can be a significant support, but also a major obstacle to implementing changes. There are common mistakes that organizations make when trying to introduce and implement changes, which relate to certain elements of the control environment. Leaders often expect resistance in advance, producing a negative Pygmalion effect, where people start behaving exactly as expected of them (Dent and Goldberg 1999; Ford and Ford and D'Amelio 2008). Employees' questions, dilemmas, and opposing opinions at different organizational levels are not taken into account, which prevents seeing a broader picture and the risks that necessarily accompany every change (Ullrich and Wieseke and Van Dick 2005; Ford and Ford, and D'Amelio 2008). Changes are managed only at the executive level; usually, a top-down approach is taken in which the top management creates a strategy, designs new structures and processes, and then expects everyone else at lower organizational levels to implement them unquestionably (O'Brien 2001). Fear is used as a management tool, raising panic by telling people they must change because the organization is in crisis (Stanleigh 2008). Thus, instead of proactive action, reactive action is stimulated, stifling creativity, ideas, initiatives, and active participation. Employees are often sent to different training sessions, and then it is expected that this is enough for implementing changes

(Stanleigh 2008). What is forgotten is the "tone at the top"; if leaders do not lead by example, behave ethically and with integrity, no training will encourage people to change (Burke and Litwin 1992; Fernandez and Rainey 2006; Gilley and McMillan and Gilley 2009). Employees are not given enough time to first understand what is happening and why, and then to embark on changes (Kotter 1995). The process of change is difficult, and on average, it takes 5 to 7 years for a change to be truly "implemented" in an organization. Without the appropriate environment, mindset, and readiness for change, it is unrealistic to expect any success, especially in the short term.

Given that rigid and bureaucratic cultures cannot respond to the challenges of today's dynamic environment and rapid changes, the control environment should also be a fluid medium that continuously evolves and adapts to the new demands of modern business. Essentially, changing the control environment towards encouraging open communication, collaboration, learning from mistakes, proactive risk management, and providing adequate training and resources can help improve an organization's risk management processes. By creating a culture that values risk management, organizations can better manage the risks associated with change and protect their employees, customers, and other stakeholders.

CONCLUSION

Organizational culture, as an important aspect of the control environment, refers to the shared values, attitudes, beliefs, and practices that characterize the organization and guide the behaviour of its employees. A large number of authors and studies have shown that a strong control environment has a significant impact on the quality of internal control systems, as well as on the way the organization approaches risk management, including those related to changes.

Given that changes are today's only constant, whether they like it or not, organizations are exposed to changes every day. The way they react to them affects whether they will survive, fail or progress. The link between organizational culture and change management is reflected in the fact that the culture of the organization, i.e., its control environment, can either facilitate or hinder effective risk management during periods of change. For example, an environment that encourages transparency, communication, and collaboration is more likely to contribute to successful management of risks associated with changes than an environment characterized by strict hierarchical structure, resistance to change, and closed-mindedness. In an environment that values transparency and communication, employees are more likely to express concerns about potential risks associated with changes, and management is more likely to listen and take adequate measures to mitigate those risks. However, in an environment that is resistant to change, employees may hesitate to express their concerns and point out potential risks, and the management's leadership style may be slow to react to those risks, even if they are identified.

Therefore, a developed and adaptable control environment has the potential to help organizations more quickly and easily identify risks associated with changes and respond to them by taking advantage of opportunities and avoiding or minimizing threats and hazards. On the other hand, an underdeveloped control environment and rigid organizational culture can hinder these efforts and increase the likelihood of negative outcomes.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 28.04.2023.
Rad odobren: 15.06.2023.

UDK 347.72.031:004.738.5
DOI 10.7251/POS2330121T
COBISS.RS-ID 138849025
Pregledni rad

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AGENCIJSKA TEORIJA I USPJEŠNOST KOMPANIJE I PROJEKTA RAZVOJA INFORMACIONIH SISTEMA

Rezime*: Stopa uspješnosti projekata razvoja informacionih sistema je veoma niska. Agencijska teorija nudi objašnjenje niskog nivoa uspješnosti projekata, ističući da su agencijski problemi i oportunitetno ponašanje projektanta glavni uzroci niskog nivoa uspješnosti projekta. Glavni faktori agencijskih problema su: sukob interesa vlasnika i projektanta, izbjegavanje izvršenja zadataka, prikupljanje privatnih informacija i ne korišćenje alata i tehnika za upravljanje projektima. Istraživanje je provedeno kao studija slučaja. Podaci su prikupljeni na osnovu upitnika koji su popunili projektanti i intervjua sa projektantima i vlasnikom kompanije. U upitniku su na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale iskazani stavovi projektanata. Samo u ispitivanju stavova o sukobu interesa učestvovali su projektanti i vlasnik kompanije. Nacrt istraživanja je na sistemski način povezao agencijske probleme i uspješnost projekta i kompanije. U radu se tvrdi da se oportunitetno ponašanje projektanata može riješiti adekvatnim ugovorom o radu. Naučni doprinos rada odnosi se na odbijanje novih naučnih činjenica, spoznaja. Pored toga, kreiran je detaljni upitnik za prikupljanje stavova projektanta o agencijskim problemima i kreiran je model rješavanja agencijskih problema i poboljšanja uspješnosti projekata i kompanije. Koristi od navedenog istraživanja imaće istraživači, projektanti i vlasnici kompanija.*

Ključne riječi*: agencijski problemi, agencijski troškovi, ugovori o radu, oportunističko ponašanje, monitoring, uspješnost projekta, informacioni sistemi*

JEL klasifikacija: *M15, M54*

UVOD

Uspješnost projekata i kompanija koje se bave razvojem informacionih sistema može se poboljšati, ako se otklone agencijski problemi. Agencijski problemi su nastali u odnosu između vlasnika i programera. Vlasnici i programeri imaju različite ciljeve. Ciljevi vlasnika su povezani sa što većim povratom na uloženu vrijednost uz proračunati rizik poslovanja, odnosno da maksimizira zaradu. Pored toga vlasnik želi da dobije relevantne informacije o poslovanju kompanije i ponašanju programera tokom razvoja projekata informacionih sistema. Takođe, vlasnik želi da programeri rade u njegovom interesu, ali i da oni zadovolje svoje interese.
Sa druge strane, programeri žele da maksimiziraju nagrade za obavljeni posao, ali da snose što manje rizika za obavljeni posao. Pored toga, programeri žele što veću samostalnost kod izvršenje zadataka. Takođe, programeri žele da imaju privatne informacije o projektu koje ne žele dijeliti sa drugima.

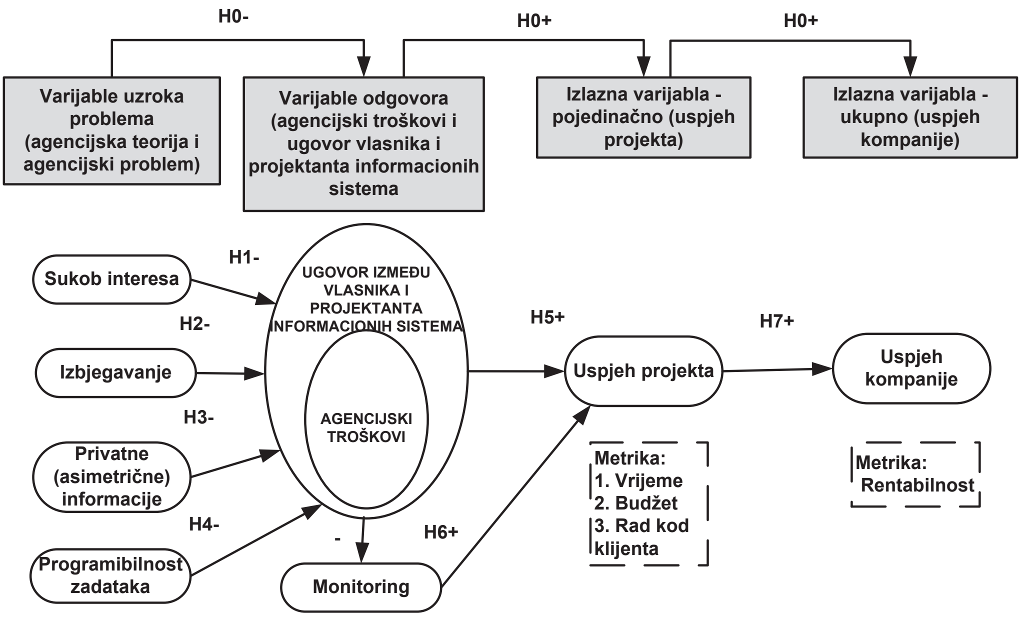
Oportunističko ponašanje programera dovodi do pojave agencijskih problema, koji se u razvoju informacionih sistema mogu podijeliti na sljedeće faktore: sukob interesa između programera i vlasnika, izbjegavanje izvršenja zadataka, prikupljanje privatnih (asimetričnih) informacija, izbjegavanje korišćenja alata i tehnika za kontrolu projekta.
Agencijski problemi prouzrokuju agencijske troškove. Oportunističko ponašanje menadžera može se otkloniti kreiranjem i potpisivanjem optimalnog ugovora o radu programera.
Na taj način povećaće se stopa uspješnosti projekta, koja je sada veoma niska i kreće se oko 16%, ali će doći do povećanja uspješnosti kompanije.

1. TEORIJSKI ASPEKTI ISTRAŽIVANJA

Agencijska teorija je vrlo uspješna i aktivna istraživačka oblast u ekonomiji, finansijama, menadžmentu i srodnim disciplinama od početka sedamdesetih godina. Agencijska teorija se fokusira na agencijske probleme i njegovo rješavanje (Jensen i Meckling 1976).
Agencijska teorija je povezana sa psihološkim ponašanjem agenata unutar organizacijske strukture kompanije (Kosnik i Bittenhausen 1992). Agencijska teorija nastoji razumjeti problem koji nastaje kada jedna strana, agent (menadžer), djeluje u ime druge strane principala (vlasnika) (Panda i Leepsa 2017). Agenti se suočavaju sa različitim problemima kada djeluju u ime svojih principala, ali i principali se suočavaju sa mnogim problemima u želji da agenti ostvaruju njihove ciljeve, a ne svoje. Ovi problemi se nazivaju agencijski problemi.
Brojni faktori mogu dovesti do agencijskih problema, a najčešći su: sukob interesa, asimetrične informacije, izbjegavanje izvršenja zadataka, moralni hazard (Todorović i Tomaš i Todorović 2020).
Identifikacija izvora agencijskih problema još uvijek su aktualno područje istraživanja. Trend analize agencijskih problema povezan je deskriptivnim opisom problema (Young i drugi 2020).
Svaka akcija korigovanja agenta ima svoje direktne i indirektne troškove. Direktni troškovi su troškovi monitoringa, troškovi motivisanja i ostali gubici. Indirektni troškovi su prevare, troškovi kapitala i troškovi utrošenog vremena vlasnika.
Rješavanje oportunističkog ponašanja menadžera i smanjenje agencijskih troškova može se postići adekvatnim ugovornim odnosom između menadžera i vlasnika (Hart 2017). Znači da se agencijska teorija bavi radnim odnosima koji nastaju kada jedna strana unajmi drugu stranu da obavi neki posao u ime prve strane. Ovaj ugovorni odnos može biti između vlasnika i menadžera, vlasnika i pojedinih radnika, menadžera i radnika, ali i između vlasnika i povjerioca i većinskih akcionara i manjinskih akcionara.
Ugovor o radu može biti potpun i nepotpun (Gretschko i Pollrich 2022). Potpuni ugovor o radu se koristi kada je situacija jasna. Ako je trošak kontrole menadžera velik zaključuje se ugovor o radu zasnovan na rezultatima poslovanja. Ako je trošak kontrole nizak zaključuje se ugovor o radu na temelju ponašanja ili fiksni ugovor. Nepotpuni ugovori se koriste za neizvjesne situacije koje se ne mogu predvidjeti. U tim ugovorima pored vlasnika i menadžera uključuje se i treća strana, sud ili notar.
Drugi način rješavanja agencijskih problema je uspostavljanje kvalitetne informacione strukture u kompaniji u kojoj bi vlasnik imao sve relevantne informacije o akcijama menadžera (Lamprou i Vagiona 2022).
Treći način rješavanja agencijskih problema i sprječavanja menadžere da zloupotrebe svoj položaj i moć i zaštitili svoje interese, vlasnici mogu koristiti nekoliko različitih mehanizama (Boshkoska 2015). Interni mehanizmi su: interna revizija (Todorović i Todorović i Tomaš 2020), promjena ugovornih stavki vezanih za platu i naknade, koncentracija vlasništva i dobro korporativno upravljanje. Eksterni mehanizmi su: eksterna revizija, tržište kapitala, zakoni i pravni okvir.
Perrow (Perrow 1986) je kritikovao agencijsku teoriju jer ona posmatra oportunističko ponašanje agenta, a ne principala. Agencijski problem se može dogoditi kod obe strane. Principali se isto mogu oportunistički ponašati prema agentima, te varati, izbjegavati svoje obaveze i iskorišćavati agente.

2. METODE ISTRAŽIVANJA

U istraživanju je korišćena kombinovana metodologija istraživanja. Kvantitativni podaci su dobiveni na osnovu anketnog upitnika zaposlenih i podataka iz preduzeća, a kvalitativni podaci su dobiveni razgovorom sa vlasnikom, menadžerima i projektantima informacionih sistema. Svrha ankete i intervjua nije bila da se testira agencijska teorija. Agencijska teorija je potvrđena u mnogim drugim kontekstima vezanim za upravljanje. Svrha pitanja bila je da bolje razumijemo djelovanje agencijske teorije na upravljanje projektima razvoja informacionih sistema.
U istraživanju su učestvovali samo ispitanici koji su bili voljni da dobrovoljno učestvuju u istraživanju. U istraživanju su ispitivani stavovi 30 zaposlenih koji su radili na razvoju projekata informacionih sistema. Pojedinačne i prosječne procjene ispitanika predstavljaju mišljenje tih osoba, a ne stav organizacije u kojoj su zaposleni. Stavovi ispitanika utvrđeni su na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale.
U ovoj studiji korišćen je otvoreni i zatvoreni upitnik iz razloga što su za osjetljive teme koje zahtijevaju fiksne odgovore i gdje je potrebno manje artikulacije prikladnija zatvorena pitanja.
Nakon provedenog istraživanja sa nasumično izabranim ispitanicima (vlasnik, menadžeri, projektanti) vođen je razgovor. Tražili smo da daju komentare po pojedinim karakterističnim stavkama.
Studija je osmišljena da procijeni uticaj nezavisnih varijabli na zavisnu varijablu, odnosno uticaj agencijskih problema i agencijskih troškova kod projekta razvoja informacionih sistema na proces ugovaranja između vlasnika i menadžera i/ili projektanta informacionih sistema i kvaliteta projekta, a što je predstavljeno nacrtom istraživanja na slici 1.
U glavnoj hipotezi se tvrdi da se u odnosu vlasnika i menadžera i/ili projektanata informacionih sistema pojavljuju agencijski problemi koji prouzrokuju agencijske troškove, a da se adekvatnim ugovorom između vlasnika i menadžera i/ili projektanata informacionih sistema mogu smanjiti ili eliminisati agencijski troškovi i poboljšati uspješnost projekta razvoja informacionih sistema i uspješnost kompanije.
Pomoćne hipoteze glase:
H1: Što su ciljevi vlasnika kompanije različitiji od ciljeva programera, to su projekti i kompanija manje uspješni.
H2: Što su programeri više izbjegavali izvršenje zadataka to su projekti i kompanija manje uspješni.
H3: Što programeri imaju više privatnih informacija to su projekti i kompanija manje uspješni.
H4: Što su programeri manje primjenjivali tehnike i alate kod upravljanja projektima (programibilnost zadataka) to su projekti i kompanija manje uspješni.
H5: Ukoliko ugovor između vlasnika i programera ne zadovoljava obostrane interese i programeri nisu adekvatno nagrađeni postoji potreba za većim monitoringom.
H6: Što se više koriste alati, tehnike i prakse praćenja projekta (monitoring) projekti i kompanija će biti uspješniji.
H7: Ukoliko su projekti uspješniji i kompanija će biti uspješnija.



Slika 1. Nacrt istraživanja (autori)

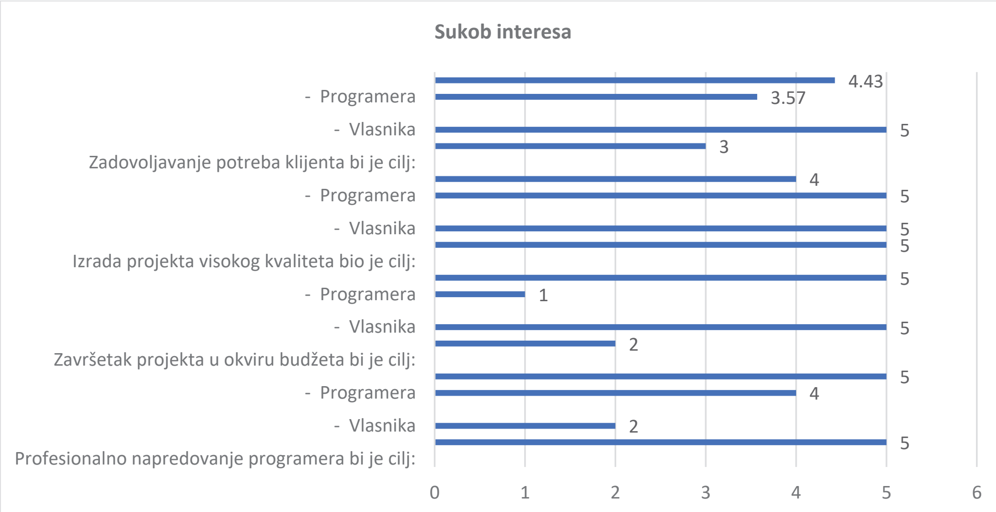
3. REZULTATI ISTRAŽIVANJA

3.1. Sukob interesa

Projektanti mogu imati ciljeve koji su suprotni ili različiti od ciljeva vlasnika. Sukob interesa može dovesti do ostvarivanja lošijih rezultata projekta i ukupnih rezultata kompanije.

Nakon završetka projekta projektantima i vlasnicima su postavljena pitanja koja se odnose na sukob interesa. Navedeni su standardni ciljevi projekta i traženo je od projektanata i vlasnika kompanije da na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale ocijene svaki pojedinačni cilj. Ocjena obima uticaja se kretala od 1, što predstavlja veoma mali obim uticaja, do 5, što predstavlja veoma veliki obim uticaja. Izračunali smo i prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera i vlasnika kompanije u odnosu na standardne ciljeve projekta.

Postavljeno je 7 standardnih ciljeva projekta: 1) profesionalno napredovanje programera, 2) završetak projekta na vrijeme, 3) završetak projekta u okviru budžeta, 4) profitabilnost projekta, 5) izrada projekta visokog kvaliteta, 6) izrada projekta bez greške i 7) zadovoljavanje potreba klijenta.



Slika 2. Ocjena obima uticaja vlasnika i projektanta vezano za ciljeve projekta (autori)

Prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova vlasnika kompanije u odnosu na standardne ciljeve projekta iznosio je 4,43, dok je prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera u odnosu na standardne ciljeve projekta iznosio 3,57.
Usaglašenost ciljeva programera sa ciljevima vlasnika kompanije izražena je kod cilja projekta koji se odnosi na izradu projekta bez greške. Programeri i vlasnik kompanije su ovaj cilj ocijenili sa 5, odnosno obim uticaja je veoma veliki. Najveća neusaglašenost ciljeva programera sa ciljevima vlasnika kompanije izražena je kod cilja izrada projekta visokog kvaliteta. Vlasnik je ovaj cilj ocijenio sa 5, dok je programer ovaj cilj ocijenio sa 1.
Neusaglašenost ciljeva programera sa ciljevima vlasnika kompanije doveo je do ostvarivanja lošijih rezultata projekta i ukupnih rezultata kompanije. Na taj način je potvrđena prva pomoćna hipoteza.

3.2. Izbjegavanje zadataka

Zbog vlastitih interesa projektanta oni neće raditi na ostvarivanju ciljeva vlasnika kompanije. Projektanti mogu na brojne načine izbjeći svoje obaveze koje su vezane za izvršavanja definisanih zadataka. Što je ova prijetnja veća, povećavaju se agencijski troškovi i zahtijeva se detaljnije definisanje ugovora o radu. Sve se to odražava na uspjeh projekta i kompanije.
Nakon završetka projekta projektantima su postavljena pitanja koja se odnose na izbjegavanje zadataka. Stavovi projektanta su ocijenjeni na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale. Ocjena obima uticaja se kretala od 1, što predstavlja veoma mali obim uticaja, do 5, što predstavlja veoma veliki obim uticaja. Izračunali smo i prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova u odnosu na postavljena pitanja.
Postavili smo 13 standardnih pitanja koji se odnosi na izbjegavanje zadataka: 1) druženje, 2) surfanje internetom, 3) rad na pogrešnim zadacima, 4) igranje kompjuterskih igrica, 5) trošenje vremena na zadacima koji nisu dodijeljeni programeru, 6) pravljenje prekomjernih pauza, 7) rad na zanimljivim manje važnim zadacima, 8) razgovor preko telefona, 9) loša organizovanost programera, 10) fiktivno uzimanje bolovanje, 11) nerazumijevanje zahtjeva, 12) slanje poruka i viceva e-mail-om, Facebook-om i 13) uzimanje dugih pauza za ručak.

Slika 3. Ocjena obima uticaja projektanta vezano za izbjeganje izvršenja zadataka (autori)

Prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera koje se odnosio na pitanja vezana za izbjegavanje izvršavanje zadataka iznosio je 2,85 što bi značilo da je nivo uticaja umjereno važan. Najveći nivo slaganja programera koji je ocijenjen sa 5 odnosio se na rad na zanimljivim manje važnim zadacima. Dok kod 7. pitanja nivo izbjegavanja zadataka je bio najniži i ocijenjen je sa ocjenom 1.

Izbjegavanje izvršavanja zadataka od strane programera doveo je do ostvarivanja lošijih rezultata projekta i ukupnih rezultata kompanije. Na taj način je potvrđena druga pomoćna hipoteza.

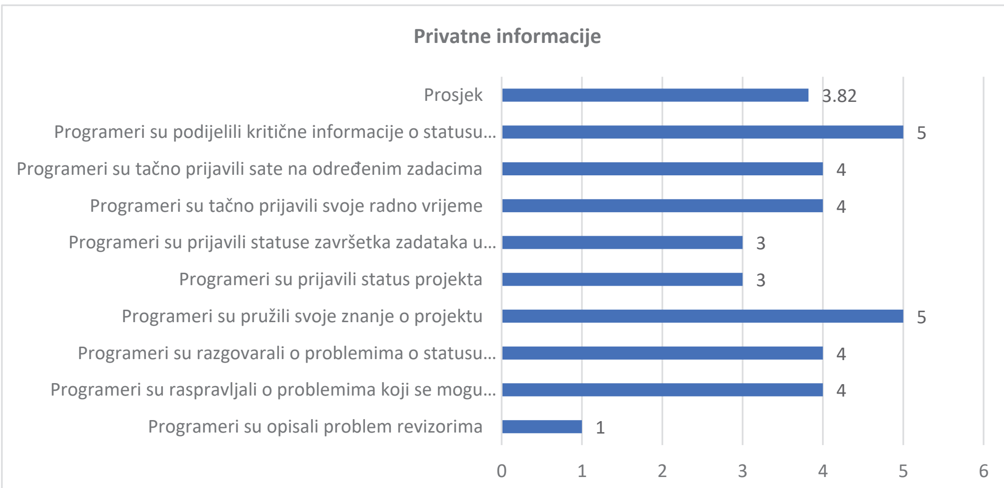
3.3. Privatne (asimetrične) informacije

Agencijski problemi i agencijski troškovi se povećavaju kada programeri imaju informacije koje vlasnici kompanije nemaju. Te privatne informacije se mogu zloupotrijebiti i nanijeti štetu vlasniku. Programeri mogu na osnovu privatnih informacija da pogrešno predstave stvarnu situaciju. Vlasnik te informacije može dobiti samo uz dodatne troškove i trošenje vlastitog vremena.

Postavili smo 11 standardnih pitanja koji se odnosi na posjedovanje privatnih informacija: 1) programeri su opisali problem revizorima, 2) programeri su raspravljali o problemima za koje vjeruju da ih mogu brzo ispraviti, 3) programeri su razgovarali o problemima projekta tokom razmatranja izvještaja o statusu projekta, 4) programeri su pružili svoje znanje o projekta, 5) programeri su prijavili status projekta, 6) programeri su prijavili statuse završetka zadataka u projektu, 7) programeri su voljno prijavili svoje radno vrijeme, 8) programeri su tačno prijavili svoje radno vrijeme, 9) programeri su prijavili sate na određenim zadacima, 10) programeri su prijavili sate na određenim zadacima i 11) programeri su podijelili kritične informacije o statusu projekta.

Nakon završetka projekta projektantima su postavljena pitanja koja se odnose na postojanje privatnih informacija. Projektanti su ocijenjeni na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale. Ocjena obima uticaja se kretala od 1, što predstavlja veoma mali obim uticaja, do 5, što predstavlja veoma veliki obim uticaja. Izračunali smo i prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera u odnosu na postavljena pitanja.

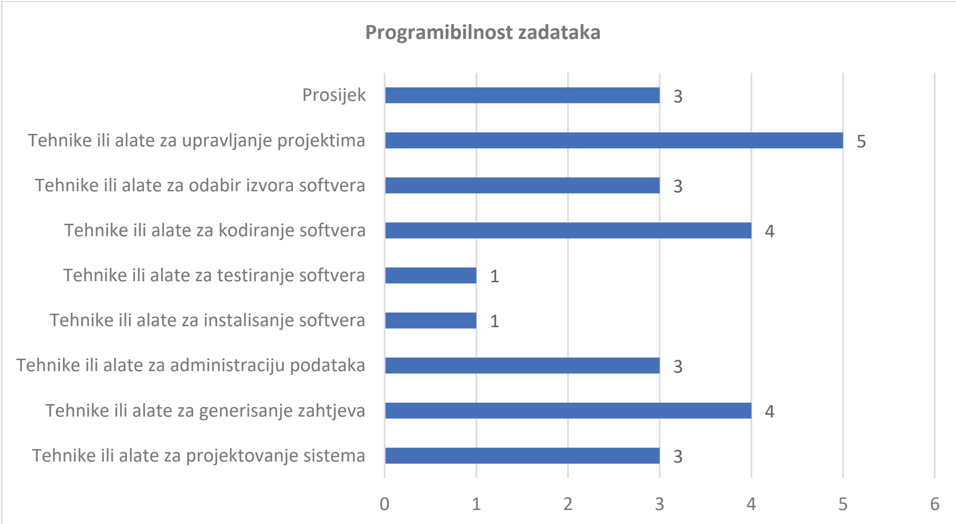
Prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera koje se odnosio na pitanja vezana za posjedovanje privatnih (asimetričnih) informacija iznosio je 3,82, što bi značilo da je nivo uticaja važan i da programeri nisi imali značajan nivo privatnih informacija koji bi mogli uticati na troškove poslovanja.
Najveći nivo slaganja programera koji je ocijenjen sa 5 odnosio se na rad na: „Programeri su pružili svoje znanje o projektu“, „Programeri su voljno prijavili svoje radno vrijeme“ i „Programeri su podijelili kritične informacije o statusu projekta“. Najnižim nivoom ocijenjeno (1) je pitanje: „Programeri su opisali problem revizorima“.
Postojanje privatnih informacija od strane programera dovodi do povećanja troškova, a što dovodi do ostvarivanja lošijih rezultata projekta i ukupnih rezultata kompanije. Na taj način je potvrđena treća pomoćna hipoteza.



Slika 4. Ocjena obima uticaja projektanta vezano za privatne (asimetrične) informacije (autori)

3.4. Programibilnost zadataka

Programibilnost zadataka se odnosi na stepen do kojeg odgovarajuće ponašanje programera i ishod projekta može biti precizno procijenjeno korišćenjem standardnih alata i tehnika. Niži nivo korišćenja standardnih alata i tehnika utiče na niži nivo kontrole programera i projekta. To dovodi do povećanja agencijskih troškova te utiče na niži nivo uspješnosti projekta i kompanije.
Nakon završetka projekta projektantima su postavljena pitanja koja se odnose na postojanje programibilnosti zadataka. Odgovori projektanata su ocjenjeni na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale. Ocjena obima uticaja se kretala od 1, što predstavlja veoma mali obim uticaja, do 5, što predstavlja veoma veliki obim uticaja. Izračunali smo i prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera u odnosu na postavljena pitanja.
Postavili smo 8 standardnih pitanja koji se odnosi na primjenu alata i tehnika kod kontrole projekata: 1) tehnike ili alate za projektovanje sistema, 2) tehnike ili alate za generisanje zahtjeva, 3) tehnike ili alate za administraciju podataka, 4) tehnike ili alate za instalisanje softvera, 5) tehnike ili alate za testiranje softvera, 6) tehnike ili alate za kodiranje softvera, 7) tehnike ili alate za odabir izvora softvera i 8) tehnike ili alate za upravljanje projektima.

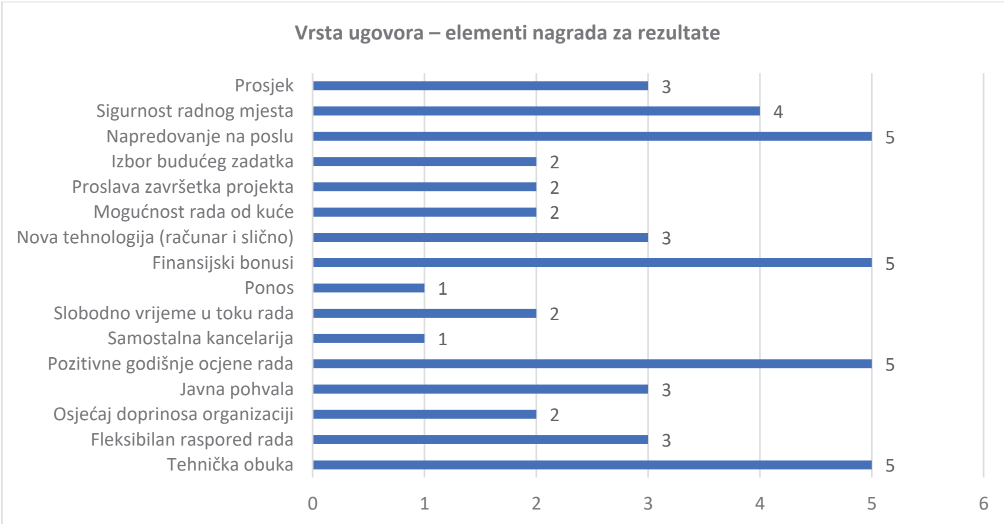


Slika 5. Ocjena obima uticaja projektanta vezano za programibilnost zadataka (autori)

Prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera koje se odnosio na primjenu alata i tehnika za kontrolu projekta iznosio je 3, što bi značilo da je nivo uticaja umjereno važan.
Najveći nivo slaganja programera koji je ocijenjen sa 5 odnosio se na: „Tehnike ili alate za upravljanje projektima“. Najnižim nivoom ocjenjena (1) su pitanja: „Tehnike ili alate za instalisanje softvera“ i „Tehnike ili alate za testiranje softvera“.
Programeri nisu mnogo koristili alate i tehnike za kontrolu projekta što bi mogao negativno uticati na uspješnost projekta i kompanije. Na taj način je potvrđena četvrta pomoćna hipoteza.

3.5. Vrsta ugovora – elementi nagrada za rezultate

Ugovor je osnov za rješavanje agencijskih problema. Ugovor se može odnositi na ponašanje programera ili na ostvarene rezultate. Aktivnosti programera ne moraju biti detaljno praćene, ako je ugovor vezan sa rezultate poslovanja. Kada programeri imaju fiksnu platu ili satnicu, bez posticaja za uspješan završetak projekta, vlasnik kompanije mora detaljnije pratiti njihov rad.
Nakon završetka projekta projektantima su postavljena pitanja koja se odnose na postojanje elemente nagrađivanja koji su definisani ugovorom. Odgovori projektanta su ocijenjeni na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale. Ocjena obima uticaja programera se kretala od 1, što predstavlja veoma mali obim uticaja, do 5, što predstavlja veoma veliki obim uticaja. Izračunali smo i prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera u odnosu na postavljena pitanja.
Postavili smo 15 standardnih pitanja koji se odnosi na nagrade programerima za uspješno završen projekt: 1) tehnička obuka, 2) fleksibilan raspored rada, 3) osjećaj doprinosa organizaciji, 4) javna pohvala, 5) pozitivne godišnje ocjene rada, 6) samostalna kancelarija, 7) slobodno vrijeme u toku rada, 8) ponos, 9) finansijski bonusi, 10) nova tehnologija (računar i slično), 11) mogućnost rada od kuće, 12) proslava završetka projekta, 13) izbor budućeg zadatka, 14) napredovanje na poslu i 15) sigurnost radnog mjesta.



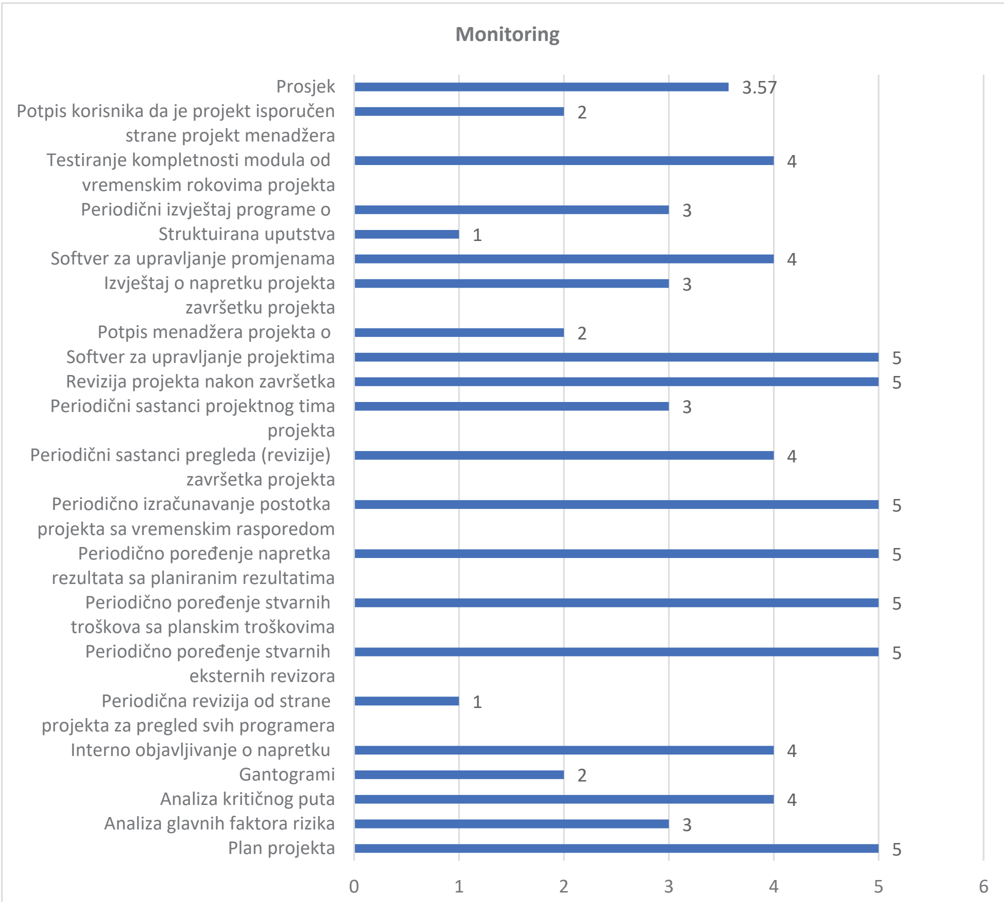
Slika 6. Ocjena obima uticaja projektanta vezano za ugovorne elemente nagrade za rezultate (autori)

Prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera koje se odnosio na ugovorne elemente nagrade za rezultate iznosio je 3, što bi značilo da je nivo uticaja umjereno važan.
Najveći nivo slaganja programera koji je ocijenjen sa 5 odnosio se na rad na: „Napredovanje na poslu“, „Finansijski bonusi“, „Pozitivne godišnje ocjene rada“ i „Tehnička obuka“. Najnižim nivoom ocijenjena (1) su pitanja: „Ponos“ i „Samostalna kancelarija“.
Ukoliko je manji nivo vezanosti programera za rezultate poslovanja vlasnik troši više vremena na kontrolu programera, a to bi moglo uticati na uspješnost projekta i kompanije. Na taj način je potvrđena peta pomoćna hipoteza.

3.6. Monitoring

Često agencijski problemi i agencijski troškovi nastaju u slučajevima kada vlasnik kompanije nije u mogućnosti da provjeri i nadgleda aktivnosti programera. Agencijska teorija ističe da je nadzor od strane vlasnika kompanije jedan od alata koji se koristi da bi programer radio u interesu vlasnika. Sposobnost praćenja projekta je važna za uspješnost projekta. Međutim, aktivnosti praćenja projekta i projektanta povezana je sa troškovima opreme, kreiranja procedura, angažovanja kadrova, zaključivanjem ugovora o radu.
Nakon završetka projekta projektantima su postavljena pitanja koja se odnose na elemente praćenja programera i projekta. Odgovori projektanti su ocijenjeni na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale. Ocjena obima uticaja se kretala od 1, što predstavlja veoma mali obim uticaja, do 5, što predstavlja veoma veliki obim uticaja. Izračunali smo i prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera u odnosu na postavljena pitanja.
Postavili smo 21 standardno pitanja koji se odnosi na praćenje projektanta i projekta: 1) plan projekta, 2) analiza glavnih faktora rizika, 3) analiza kritičnog puta, 4) gantogrami, 5) interno objavljivanje o napretku projekta, 6) periodična revizija od strane eksternih revizora, 7) periodično poređenje stvarnih i planskih troškova, 8) periodično poređenje stvarnih i planskih rezultata, 9) periodično poređenje napretka projekta, 10) periodično izračunavanje postotka završetka projekta, 11) periodični sastanci revizije projekta, 12) periodični sastanci projektnog tima, 13) revizija projekta nakon završetka, 14) softver za upravljanje projektima, 15) potpis menadžera projekta o završetku projekta, 16) izvještaj o napretku projekta, 17) softver za upravljanje promjenama, 18)

struktuirana uputstva, 19) periodični izvještaj programe o vremenskim rokovima projekta, 20) testiranje kompletnosti modula i 21) potpis korisnika da je projekt isporučen.

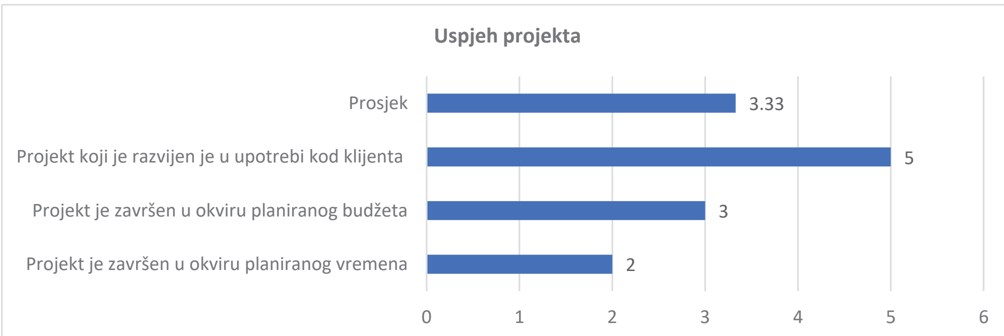


Slika 7. Ocjena obima uticaja projektanta vezano za monitoring programera i projekta (autori)

Prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera koje se odnosio na monitoring iznosio je 3,57, što bi značilo da je nivo uticaja važan.
Najveći nivo slaganja programera koji je ocjenjen sa 5 odnosio se na rad na: „Plan projekta", „Periodično poređenje stvarnih troškova sa planskim troškovima", „Periodično poređenje stvarnih rezultata sa planiranim rezultatima", „Periodično poređenje napretka projekta sa vremenskim rasporedom", „Periodično izračunavanje postotka završetka projekta", „Revizija projekta nakon završetka" i „Softver za upravljanje projektima". Najnižim nivoom ocijenjena (1) su pitanja: „Periodična revizija od strane eksternih revizora" i „Struktuirana uputstva".
Ukoliko je viši nivo monitoringa to će uticati na pojavu određenih troškova, ali značajnije će uticati na uspješnost projekta i kompanije. Na taj način je potvrđena šesta pomoćna hipoteza.

3.7. Uspjeh projekta

Svi projekti informacionih sistema imaju definisane finansijske limite i rokove. Ovi limiti nisu nametnuti od strane projektnog tima, već od strane top menadžmenta, klijenata ili zainteresovanih strana za kojeg se softver razvija. Uspjeh projekta mjeren je sa tri faktora: 1) projekt je završen u okviru planiranog vremena, 2) projekt je završen u okviru planiranog budžeta i 3) projekt koji je razvijen je u upotrebi kod klijenta.
Nakon završetka projekta projektantima su postavljena pitanja koja se odnose na elemente uspješnosti projekta. Odgovori projektanti su ocijenjeni na osnovu petostepene Likertove skale. Ocjena obima uticaja se kretala od 1, što predstavlja potpuno se ne slažem, do 5, što predstavlja potpuno se slažem. Izračunali smo i prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova na postavljena pitanja.



Slika 8. Ocjena obima uticaja projektanta vezano za uspjeh projekta (autori)

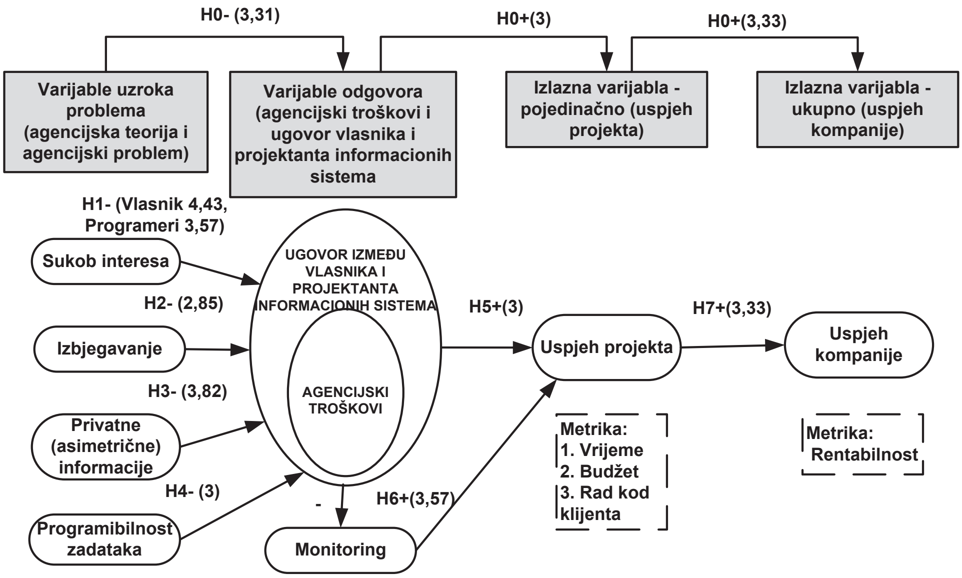
Prosječni obim uticaja na osnovu stavova programera, koji se odnosio na uspješnost projekta, iznosio je 3,33, što bi značilo da su programeri bili neodlučni oko vrednovanja uspješnosti projekta. Naveći nivo slaganja programera koji je ocijenjen sa 5 odnosio se na faktor uspjeha projekta: „Projekt koji je razvijen je u upotrebi kod klijenta“. Najnižim nivoom ocjenjeno (2) je pitanje: „Projekt je završen okviru planiranog vremena“.
Ukoliko je viši nivo uspjeha projekta i kompanije će biti uspješnija. Na taj način je potvrđena sedma pomoćna hipoteza.

3.8. Zbirni rezultati

Stavovi programera koji se odnose na agencijske probleme, monitoring i uspješnost projekata prikazani su na slici 9.

Slika 9. Stavovi programera koji se odnose na agencijske probleme, monitoring i uspjeh projekta (autori)

Agencijski problemi prouzrokuju agencijske troškove. Ugovorom o radu između vlasnika i programera potrebno je da se agencijski troškovi smanje, što će povećati uspješnost projekta i kompanije.
Na osnovu stavova projektanata provjerili smo nacrt istraživanje i glavnu hipotezu istraživanja.



Slika 10. Zbirni rezultati odnosa agencijskih problema i uspješnosti (Autori)

Potvrdili smo da agencijski problemi koji se odnose na sukob interesa, izbjegavanje zadataka, postojanje privatnih informacija i korišćenje alata i tehnika kod programibilnosti zadataka izazivaju agencijske troškove, koji se otklanjaju dobro definisanim ugovorom o radu između vlasnika i programera. Dobro definisani ugovor o radu i monitoring projekta i projektanta pozitivno utiče na uspjeh projekta razvoja informacionih sistema i IT kompanije.

4. DISKUSIJA

Agencijska teorija je pokazala, kroz više istraživanja, da se u odnosu vlasnika i projektanta pojavljuju agencijski problemi (Mahaney i Lederer 2011; Lamprou i Vagiona 2022) koji prouzrokuju agencijske troškove, a što se negativno odrazilo na uspješnost projekta i kompanija (Nusraningrum i Jaswati i Thamrin 2020). Oportunističko ponašanje projektanata može se riješiti kreiranjem adekvatnog ugovora o radu koji treba da obezbijedi zadovoljavanje ciljeva projektanta i vlasnika kompanije (Erikson i Knockaert 2021).
Rezultati istraživanja imaju naučne i praktične doprinose. Naučni doprinosi se odnose na na nove naučne činjenice i spoznaje kod definisanje agencijskih problema kod projekta razvoja informacionih sistema, a koji se odnose na: sukob interesa između vlasnika i projektanta, izbjegavanje izvršenja zadataka od strane projektanta, prikupljnje privatnih informacija i slabo korišćenje alata i tehnika za kontrolu projekta. Posebno je važno naglasiti da su agencijski problemi detaljno opisani i da je kreiran upitnik kojim se mogu utvrditi stavovi projektanta u odnosu na

agencijske probleme. U radu je predstavljen model rješavanja agencijskih problema u cilju poboljšanja uspješnosti projekta i kompanije iz oblasti razvoja informacionih sistema.
Istraživanje može služiti u praktične svrhe istraživačima, vlasnicima kompanija i projektantima.
Istraživači će dobiti model za rješavanje agencijskih problema u kompanijama koje razvijaju projekte informacionih sistema. Dobili su i upitnik za utvrđivanje stavova projektanta vazanih za agencijske probleme. Istraživači bi mogli u budućem istraživanju obuhvatiti više različitih kompanija iz različitih sektora i poboljšati upitnik. Takođe bi mogli procijeniti direktne i indirektne agencijske troškove.
Projektanti informacionih sistema dobiće dodatne informacije o agencijskim problemima koje će im koristiti kod pregovaranja o ugovoru o radu. Kreiranjem adekvatnog ugovora o radu projektanti će nastojati da ostvare svoje ciljeve, ali i ciljeve vlasnika kompanije. Takođe, dobivene informacije mogu koristiti u procesu upravljanja projektima sa ciljem da poboljšaju uspješnost projekta i kompanije.
Vlasnici kompanije će dobiti informacije na osnovu kojih će moći smanjiti oprtunističko ponašanje projektanata i smanjiti agencijske troškove. Sve to će uticati na uspješnost projekta i kompanije.

ZAKLJUČAK

Stopa uspješnosti projekta razvoja informacionih sistema je veoma niska. Agencijska teorija daje objašnjenje da je niska stopa uspješnosti povezana sa agencijskim problemima.
Ovo istraživanja je pokazalo da izbjegavanje izvršenja zadataka od strane programera i nekorišćenje alata i tehnika za kontrolu projekta najviše utiču na rokove završetka projekta.
Posebno je važno istaći ulogu monitoringa u praćenju projektanta i projekta. Motinoring pozitivno utiče na uspješnost projekta i kompanije. Ovi nalazi ukazuju da vlasnici i rukovodioci projekta moraju više koristiti monitoring, ali i tehnike i alate za kontrolu projekta u cilju poboljšanja nivoa uspješnosti projekta.
Oportunističko ponašanje projektanta i povećanje njihovog zadovoljstva najefikasnije se rješava kreiranjem adekvatnog ugovora o radu. Ugovori o radu bi trebali povećati zadovoljstvo projektanata, ostvariti ciljeve vlasnika i povećani nivo uspješnosti projekta i kompanije.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 28/04/2023
The paper accepted: 15/06/2023

UDK 347.72.031:004.738.5
DOI 10.7251/POS2330135T
COBISS.RS-ID 138851841
Review

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AGENCY THEORY AND SUCCESS OF THE COMPANY AND INFORMATION SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

Summary: *The success rate of information systems development projects is very low. Agency theory explains the low level of project success, emphasizing that agency problems and the opportunistic behaviour of designers are the main causes of the low level of project success. The main factors of agency problems are conflict of interest between the owner and the designer, avoiding the execution of tasks, collection of private information and not using tools and techniques for project management. The research was conducted as a case study. The data was collected based on questionnaires filled out by the designers and interviews with the designers and the owner of the company. In the questionnaire, based on a five-point Likert scale, the views of the designers were expressed. Only the designers and the owner of the company took part in the examination of the views on the conflict of interest. The draft research linked the agency problems and the success of the project and the company in a systematic way. The paper claims that the opportunistic behaviour of designers can be solved with an adequate employment contract. The scientific contribution of the work refers to the rejection of new scientific facts, cognitions. In addition, a detailed questionnaire was created to collect the designer's views on agency problems and a model was created for solving agency problems and improving the success of projects and the company. Researchers, designers, and company owners will benefit from the mentioned research.*

Key words: *agency problems, agency costs, employment contracts, opportunistic behaviour, monitoring, project success, information systems*

JEL classification: *M15, M54*

INTRODUCTION

The success of projects and companies involved in the development of information systems can be improved if agency problems are eliminated. Agency problems arose in the relationship between the owner and the developer. Owners and developers have different goals. The goals of the owner are related to the highest possible return on the invested value with calculated business risk, that is, to maximize earnings. In addition, the owner wants to receive relevant information about the company's operations and the behaviour of developers during the development of information systems projects. Also, the owner wants developers to work in his interest, but also for them to satisfy their own interests.
On the other hand, developers want to maximize the rewards for the work done but bear as little risk as possible for the work done. In addition, developers want as much independence as possible

when performing tasks. Also, developers want to have private project information that they don't want to share with others.
Opportunistic behaviour of programmers leads to the appearance of agency problems, which in the development of information systems can be divided into the following factors: conflict of interests between programmers and owners, avoidance of tasks, collection of private (asymmetric) information, avoidance of using tools and techniques for project control.
Agency problems cause agency costs. Opportunistic behaviour of managers can be eliminated by creating and signing an optimal contract on the work of developers.
In this way, the success rate of the project will increase, which is now very low and hovers around 16%, but there will be an increase in the company's success rate.

1. THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF RESEARCH

Agency theory has been a very successful and active research area in economics, finance, management, and related disciplines since the beginning of the seventies. Agency theory focuses on agency problems and their resolution (Jensen and Meckling 1976).
Agency theory is related to the psychological behaviour of agents within the organizational structure of the company (Kosnik and Bittenhausen 1992). Agency theory seeks to understand the problem that arises when one party, the agent (manager), acts on behalf of the other party, the principal (owner) (Panda and Leepsa 2017). Agents face various problems when acting on behalf of their principals, but principals also face many problems in wanting agents to achieve their goals rather than their own. These problems are called agency problems.
Numerous factors can lead to agency problems, and the most common are conflict of interest, asymmetric information, avoidance of tasks, moral hazard (Todorović and Tomaš and Todorović 2020). The identification of sources of agency problems is still a current area of research. The trend of analysis of agency problems relates to a descriptive description of the problem (Young and others 2020).
Each agent's corrective action has its own direct and indirect costs. Direct costs are monitoring costs, motivation costs and other losses. Indirect costs are fraud, capital costs, and owner time costs. Addressing the opportunistic behaviour of managers and reducing agency costs can be achieved through an adequate contractual relationship between managers and owners. (Hart 2017). It means that agency theory deals with working relationships that arise when one party hires another party to do some work on behalf of the first party. This contractual relationship can be between owners and managers, owners and individual workers, managers, and workers, but also between owners and creditors and majority shareholders and minority shareholders.
The employment contract can be complete or incomplete (Gretschko and Pollrich 2022). A full employment contract is used when the situation is clear. If the cost of the manager's control is high, an employment contract based on business results is concluded. If the cost of control is low, a contract of employment based on behaviour or a fixed contract is concluded. Incomplete contracts are used for uncertain situations that cannot be predicted. In addition to the owner and manager, a third party, a court or a notary is included in those contracts.
Another way to solve agency problems is to establish a quality information structure in the company where the owner would have all the relevant information about the manager's actions. (Lamprou and Vagiona 2022).
A third way of solving agency problems and preventing managers from abusing their position and power and protecting their interests, owners can use several different mechanisms. (Boshkoska 2015). Internal mechanisms are: internal audit (Todorović and Todorović and Tomaš 2020), changes in contractual items related to salary and benefits, concentration of ownership and good corporate governance. External mechanisms are external audit, capital market, laws, and legal framework.

Perrow (Perrow 1986) criticized agency theory because it looks at the opportunistic behaviour of the agent rather than the principal. An agency problem can happen to both parties. Principals can also behave opportunistically towards agents, cheat, avoid their obligations and take advantage of agents.

2. RESEARCH METHODS

The research used a combined research methodology. Quantitative data were obtained based on employee questionnaires and data from the company, and qualitative data were obtained by talking to the owner, managers and designers of information systems. The purpose of the survey and interviews was not to test agency theory. Agency theory has been validated in many other management contexts. The purpose of the question was to better understand the effect of agency theory on the management of information systems development projects.

Only respondents who were willing to voluntarily participate in the research took part in the research. The research examined the attitudes of 30 employees who worked on the development of information systems projects. Individual and average assessments of respondents represent the opinion of those persons, and not the position of the organization in which they are employed. The respondents' attitudes were determined based on a five-point Likert scale.

In this study, an open-ended and a closed-ended questionnaire were used because closed-ended questions are more appropriate for sensitive topics that require fixed answers and where less articulation is needed.

After the research was conducted, an interview was conducted with randomly selected respondents (owner, managers, and designers). We asked them to give comments on certain characteristic items.

The study was designed to evaluate the influence of independent variables on the dependent variable, i.e. the influence of agency problems and agency costs in an information systems development project on the contracting process between the owner and manager and/or designer of information systems and the quality of the project, which is represented by the research outline in Figure 1.

The main hypothesis claims that agency problems arise in the relationship between owners and managers and/or designers of information systems, which cause agency costs, and that an adequate contract between owners and managers and/or designers of information systems can reduce or eliminate agency costs and improve performance. information systems development project and the success of the company.

The auxiliary hypotheses are:

H1: The more the company owner's goals are different from the developers' goals, the less successful the projects and the company are.

H2: The more the programmers avoided the execution of tasks, the less successful the projects and the company.

H3: The more private information the developers had, the less successful the projects and the company.

H4: The less developers applied techniques and tools in project management (programmability of tasks), the less successful the projects and the company.

H5: If the contract between the owner and developer does not satisfy mutual interests and developers are not adequately rewarded, there is a need for greater monitoring.

H6: The more tools, techniques, and practices of project monitoring (monitoring) are used, projects and companies will be successful.

H7: If the projects are more successful, the company will also be successful.

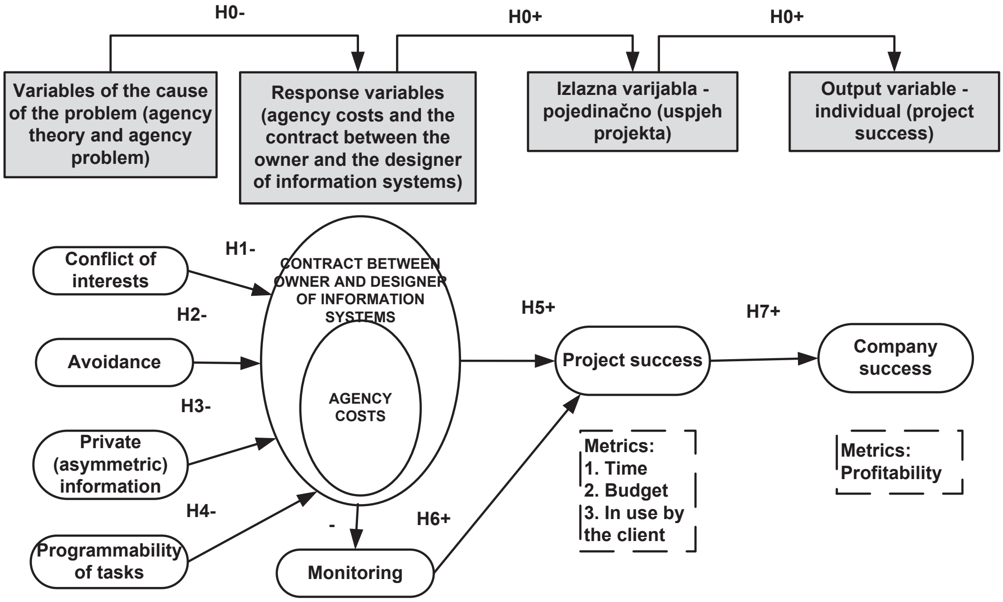

Figure 1. Outline of the research (Authors)

3. RESEARCH RESULTS

3.1. Conflict of interest

Designers may have goals that are opposite or different from the goals of the owner. A conflict of interest can lead to poorer project results and overall company results.

After the completion of the project, the designers and owners were asked questions related to the conflict of interest. Standard project goals were listed, and designers and company owners were asked to rate each individual goal based on a five-point Likert scale. The extent of impact rating ranged from 1 representing a very small extent of impact to 5 representing a very large extent of impact. We also calculated the average scope of influence based on the views of developers and company owners in relation to standard project goals.

7 standard project goals were set: 1) Professional development of the developer, 2) Completion of the project on time, 3) Completion of the project within the budget, 4) Profitability of the project, 5) High quality project development, 6) Error-free project development, and 7) Satisfaction client's need.

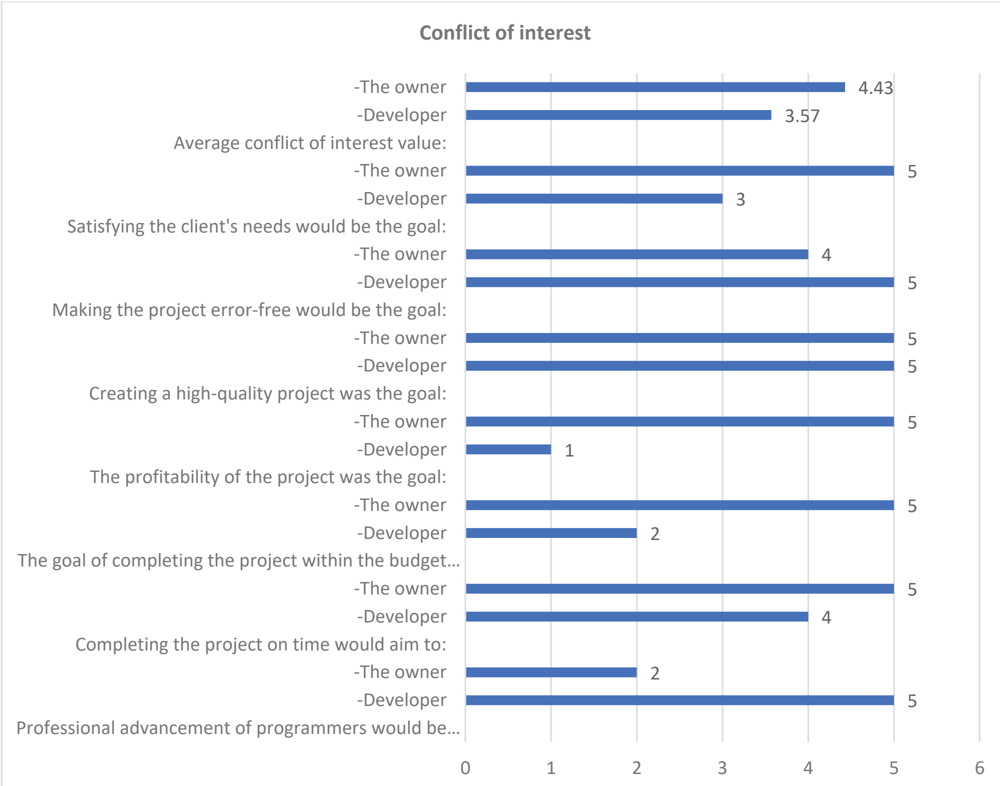

Figure 2. Evaluation of the scope of influence of the owner and designer in relation to the project goals (Authors)

The average volume of influence based on the views of the company owner in relation to the standard project goals was 4.43, while the average volume of influence based on the views of the developers in relation to the standard project goals was 3.57.
The compatibility of the developer's goals with the goals of the company owner is expressed in the project goal, which refers to the creation of a project without errors. Developers and the owner of the company rated this goal as 5, that is, the scope of the impact is very large. The biggest inconsistency between the developer's goals and the company owner's goals is expressed in the goal of creating a high-quality project. The owner rated this goal 5 while the developer rated this goal 1.
The inconsistency of the goals of the developer with the goals of the company owner led to the realization of worse project results and the overall results of the company. In this way, the first auxiliary hypothesis was confirmed.

3.2. Task avoidance

Because of the designers' own interests, they will not work to achieve the goals of the company owner. Designers can avoid their obligations related to the execution of defined tasks in numerous ways. The greater this threat, the higher the agency costs and the more detailed definition of the employment contract is required. All this reflects on the success of the project and the company.

After the completion of the project, the designers were asked questions related to the avoidance of tasks. The designer's views were evaluated based on a five-point Likert scale. The extent of impact rating ranged from 1 representing a very small impact to 5 representing a very large impact. We also calculated the average volume of influence based on attitudes in relation to the questions asked. We asked 13 standard questions related to task avoidance: 1) Socializing, 2) Surfing the Internet, 3) Working on the wrong tasks, 4) Playing computer games, 5) Spending time on tasks not assigned to the developer, 6) Making excessive break, 7) Working on interesting less important tasks, 8) Talking on the phone, 9) Bad organization of programmers, 10) Taking fictitious sick leave, 11) Not understanding requests, 12) Sending messages and jokes by e-mail, Face book and 13) Taking long lunch breaks.

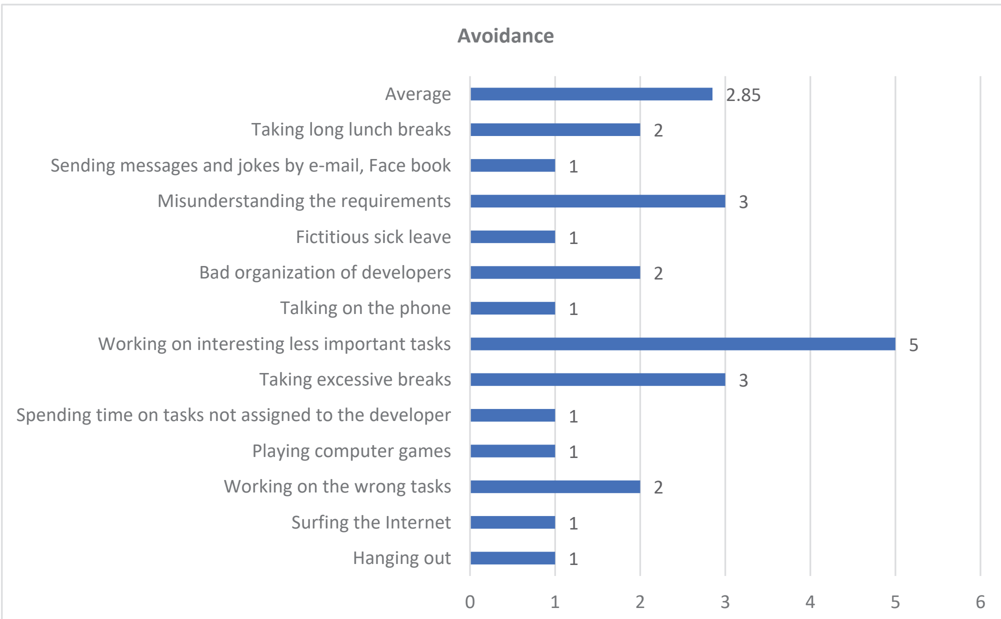

Figure 3. Assessment of the scope of the designer's influence regarding the avoidance of tasks (Authors)

The average volume of influence based on the attitudes of programmers related to issues related to avoiding the execution of tasks was 2.85, which would mean that the level of influence is moderately important.
The highest level of programmer agreement, which was rated 5, was related to working on interesting less important tasks. While with 7 questions, the level of task avoidance was the lowest and was rated 1.
Avoidance of tasks by developers led to worse project results and overall company results. In this way, the second auxiliary hypothesis was confirmed.

3.3. Private (asymmetric) information

Agency problems and agency costs increase when developers have information that company owners do not have. That private information can be misused and harm the owner. Developers can use private information to misrepresent the real situation. The owner can obtain this information only with additional costs and spending his own time.

We asked 11 standard questions related to the possession of private information: 1) Developers described a problem to auditors, 2) Developers discussed problems they believed they could quickly correct , 3) Developers discussed project problems during status report reviews of the project, 4) Developers provided their knowledge of the project, 5) Developers reported project status, 6) Developers reported project completion statuses, 7) Developers willingly reported their working hours, 8) Developers reported their working hours accurately , 9) Developers reported hours on specific tasks, 10) Developers reported hours on specific tasks, and 11) Developers shared critical information about project status.

After the completion of the project, the designers were asked questions related to the existence of private information. The designers were evaluated based on a five-point Likert scale. The extent of impact rating ranged from 1 representing a very small extent of impact to 5 representing a very large extent of impact. We also calculated the average volume of influence based on the views of developers in relation to the questions asked.

The average volume of influence based on the programmers' views related to issues related to the possession of private (asymmetric) information was 3.82, which would mean that the level of influence is important and that the developers did not have a significant level of private information that could affect business costs.

The highest level of developer agreement rated at 5 was related to working on: Developers provided their knowledge of the project, Developers volunteered their working hours, and Developers shared critical information about the status of the project. The lowest rated level (1) is the question: The developers described the problem to the auditors.

The existence of private information on the part of developers leads to increased costs, which leads to poorer project results and overall company results. In this way, the third auxiliary hypothesis was confirmed.

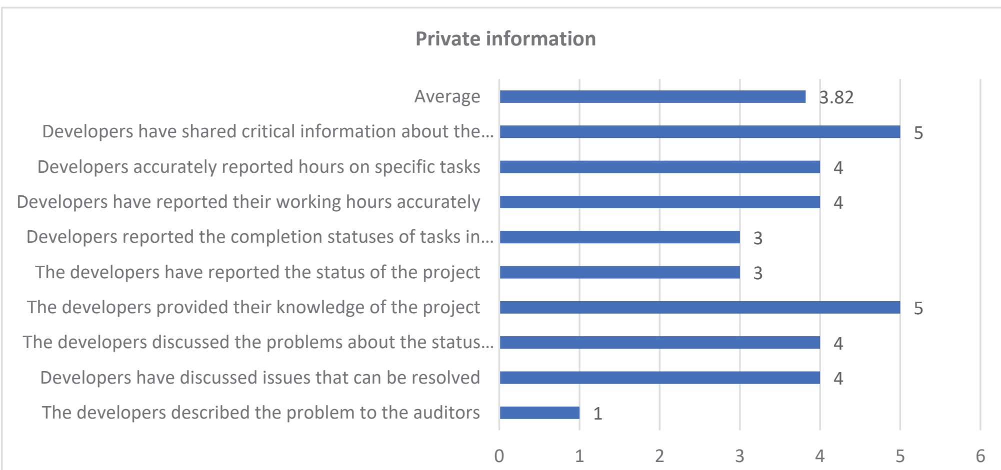

Figure 4. Assessment of the scope of the designer's influence regarding private (asymmetric) information (Authors)

3.4. Programmability of tasks

Task programmability refers to the degree to which the appropriate behaviour of the programmer and the outcome of the project can be accurately estimated using standard tools and techniques. A lower level of use of standard tools and techniques affects a lower level of developer and project

control. This leads to an increase in agency costs and affects the lower level of success of the project and the company.
After the completion of the project, the designers were asked questions related to the existence of programmability of the tasks. The responses of the designers were evaluated based on a five-point Likert scale. The extent of impact rating ranged from 1 representing a very small impact to 5 representing a very large impact. We also calculated the average volume of influence based on the views of developers in relation to the questions asked.
We asked 8 standard questions related to the application of tools and techniques in project control: 1) Techniques or tools for system design, 2) Techniques or tools for generating requirements, 3) Techniques or tools for data administration, 4) Techniques or tools for software installation, 5) Software testing techniques or tools, 6) Software coding techniques or tools, 7) Software source selection techniques or tools, and 8) Project management techniques or tools.

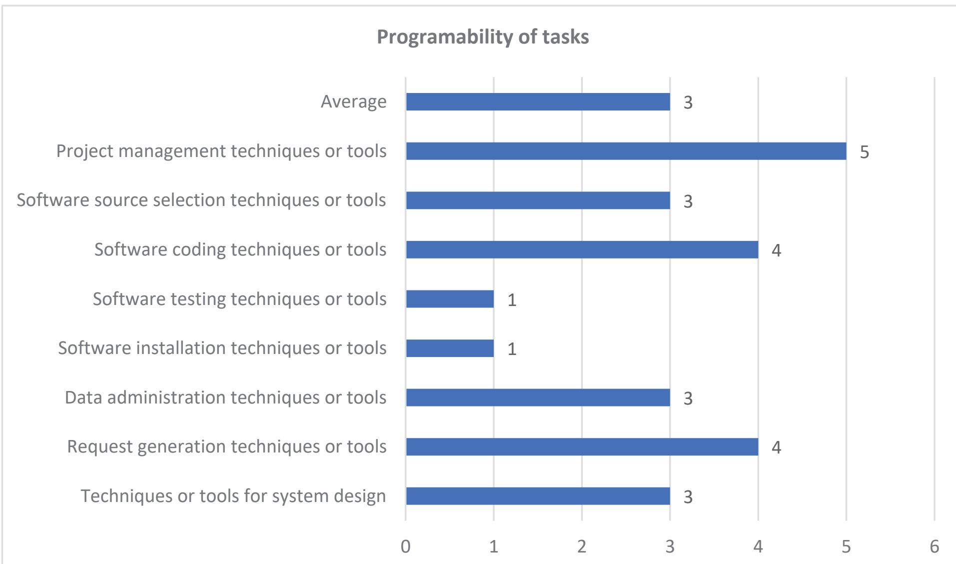

Figure 5. Assessment of the scope of the designer's influence regarding the programmability of tasks (Authors)

The average volume of influence based on the views of developers related to the application of tools and techniques for project control was 3, which would mean that the level of influence is moderately important.
The highest level of developer agreement, rated 5, related to: Techniques or tools for project management. The lowest rated level (1) are the questions: Techniques or tools for installing software and Software testing techniques or tools.
Developers did not use many tools and techniques for project control, which could negatively affect the success of the project and the company. In this way, the fourth auxiliary hypothesis was confirmed.

3.5. Type of contract - elements of rewards for results

The contract is the basis for solving agency problems. The contract may refer to the behaviour of the developer or to the results achieved. The developer's activities do not have to be monitored in detail if the contract is related to business results. When developers have a fixed salary or hourly rate, with no achievement for successful project completion, the company owner must monitor their work in more detail.

After the completion of the project, the designers were asked questions related to the existence of reward elements defined by the contract. The designer's answers were evaluated based on a five-point Likert scale. The developer's scale of impact rating ranged from 1 representing a very small scale of impact to 5 representing a very large scale of impact. We also calculated the average volume of influence based on the views of developers in relation to the questions asked.

We asked 15 standard questions related to rewards for developers for a successfully completed project: 1) Technical training, 2) Flexible work schedule, 3) Feeling of contribution to the organization, 4) Public praise, 5) Positive annual performance evaluations, 6) Independent office, 7) Free time during work, 8) Pride, 9) Financial bonuses, 10) New technology (computer and similar), 11) Possibility of working from home, 12) Celebration of project completion, 13) Choice of future task, 14) Advancement to work and 15) Workplace safety.

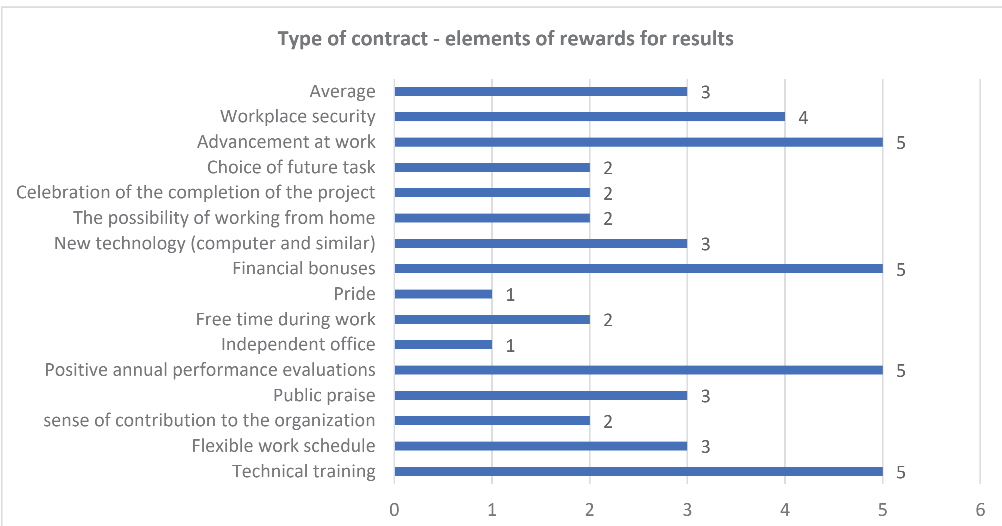

Figure 6. Assessment of the extent of influence of the designer related to the contractual elements of the award for results (Authors)

The average extent of influence based on the views of developers related to the contractual elements of the reward for results was 3, which would mean that the level of influence is moderately important.

The highest level of developer agreement, rated 5, was related to work on: Job Advancement, Financial Bonuses, Positive Annual Performance Evaluations, and Technical Training. The lowest graded level (1) are the questions: Pride and Independent office.

If the developer's level of attachment to business results is lower, the owner spends more time controlling the developer, and this could affect the success of the project and the company. In this way, the fifth auxiliary hypothesis was confirmed.

3.6. Monitoring

Often, agency problems and agency costs arise in cases where the company owner is unable to check and monitor the developer's activities. Agency theory points out that supervision by the owner of the company is one of the tools used to make the developer work in the interest of the owner. The ability to monitor the project is important to the success of the project. However, the activities of monitoring the project and the designer are related to the costs of equipment, creation of procedures, recruitment of personnel, conclusion of work contracts.
After the completion of the project, the designers were asked questions related to the elements of monitoring the developer and the project. The responses of the designers were evaluated based on a five-point Likert scale. The extent of impact rating ranged from 1 representing a very small impact to 5 representing a very large impact. We also calculated the average volume of influence based on the views of developers in relation to the questions asked.
We asked 21 standard questions related to the monitoring of the designer and the project: 1) Project plan , 2) Analysis of the main risk factors , 3) Critical path analysis , 4) Gantt charts , 5) Internal publication on the progress of the project , 6) Periodic review by external auditors , 7) Periodic comparison of actual and planned costs, 8) Periodic comparison of actual and planned results , 9) Periodic comparison of project progress , 10) Periodic calculation of project completion percentage , 11) Periodic project audit meetings , 12) Periodic project team meetings , 13) Post-Completion Project Audit , 14) Project Management Software , 15) Project Manager Signature on Project Completion, 16) Project Progress Report, 17) Change Management Software, 18) Structured Instructions, 19) Periodic Program Timeline Report of the project, 20) Testing the completeness of the module and 21) Signature of the user that the project has been delivered.

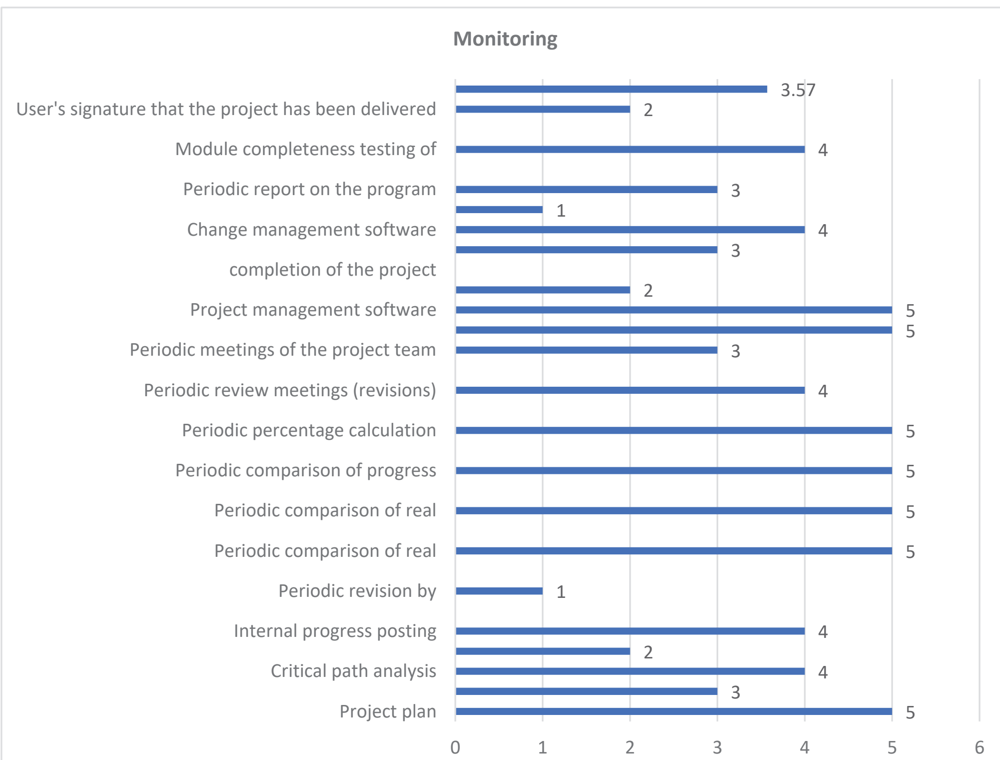

Figure 7. Assessment of the scope of the designer's influence related to the monitoring of the developer and the project (Authors)

The average volume of influence based on the views of the developers related to monitoring was 3.57, which would mean that the level of influence is important.
The highest level of developer agreement rated 5 was related to work on: Project plan, Periodic comparison of actual costs with planned costs, Periodic comparison of actual results with planned results, Periodic comparison of project progress with schedule, Periodic calculation of percentage of project conclusion, Project audit after completion and Project Management Software. The lowest graded level (1) are the questions: Periodic audit by external auditors and Structured instructions.
If the level of monitoring is higher, it will affect the occurrence of certain costs, but more significantly it will affect the success of the project and the company. In this way, the sixth auxiliary hypothesis was confirmed.

3.7. Project success

All information systems projects have defined financial limits and deadlines. These limits are not imposed by the project team, but by top management, clients or stakeholders for whom the software is being developed. The success of the project was measured by three factors: 1) The project was completed within the planned time, 2) The project was completed within the planned budget and 3) The project that was developed is in use by the client.
After the completion of the project, the designers were asked questions related to the elements of the success of the project. The responses of the designers were evaluated based on a five-point Likert scale. The rating of the extent of influence ranged from 1, which represents completely disagree, to 5, which represents completely agree. We also calculated the average volume of influence based on attitudes to the questions asked.

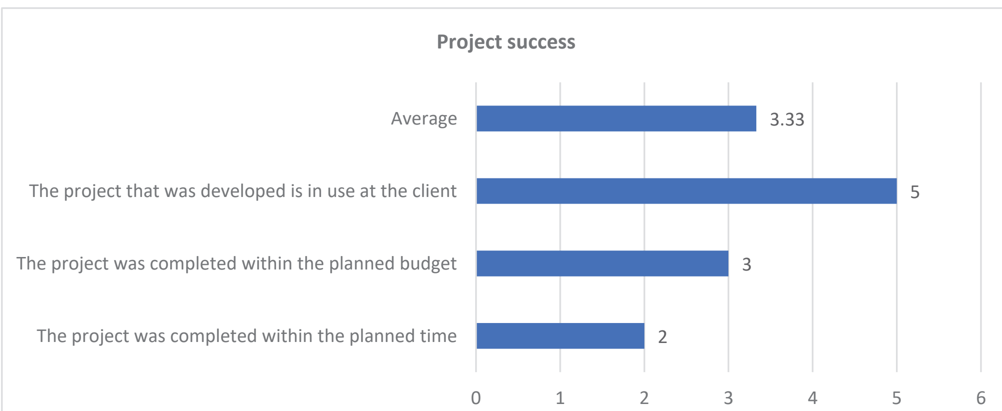

Figure 8. Assessment of the scope of the designer's influence related to the success of the project (Authors)

The average volume of influence based on the views of the developers related to the success of the project was 3.33, which would mean that the developers were undecided about evaluating the success of the project.
The developer's level of agreement, rated 5, was related to the project's success factor: The project that was developed is in use by the client. The lowest level of value (2) is the question: The project was completed within the planned time frame.
If the level of success of the project is higher, the company will be more successful. In this way, the seventh auxiliary hypothesis was confirmed.

3.8. Summary results

The views of programmers related to agency problems, monitoring and success of projects are shown in Figure 9.

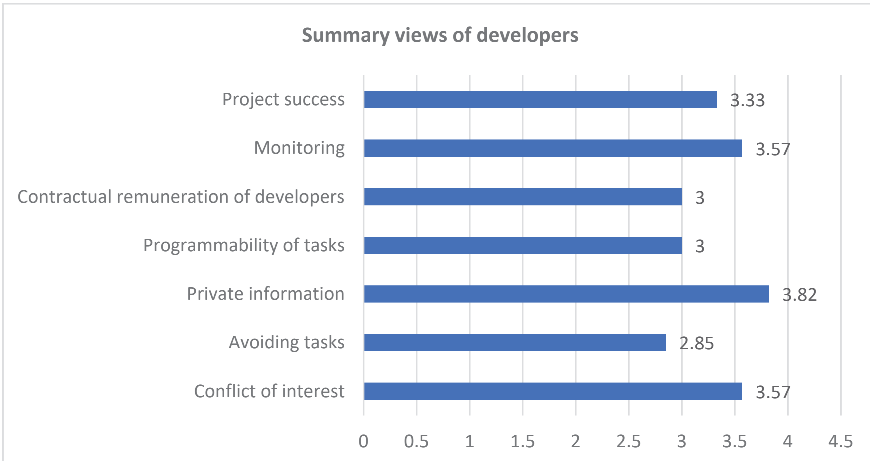

Figure 9. Developer skills related to agency problems, monitoring and project success (Authors)

Agency problems cause agency costs. The employment contract between the owner and the developer should reduce the agency costs, which will increase the success of the project and the company.

Based on the views of the designers, we checked the draft research and the main hypothesis of the research.

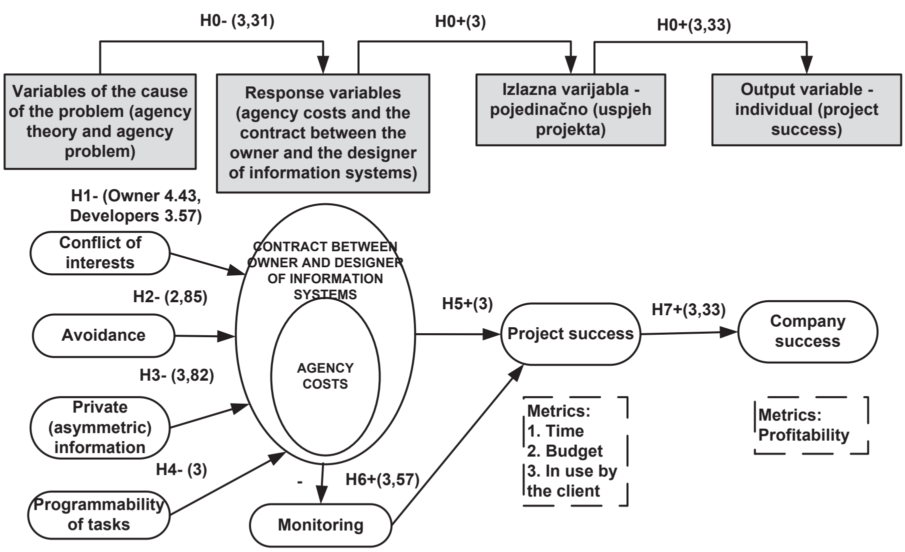

Figure 10. Summary results of the relationship between agency problems and success (Authors)

We have confirmed that agency problems related to conflict of interest, avoidance of tasks, existence of private information and use of tools and techniques in the programmability of tasks cause agency costs, which are eliminated by the age-defined work contract between the owner and developer. A well-defined work contract and monitoring of the project and the designer have a positive effect on the success of the information systems development project and the IT company.

4. DISCUSSION

The agency theory has shown, through several studies, that agency problems appear in the relationship between the owner and the designer (Mahaney and Lederer 2011; Lamprou and Vagiona 2022) which cause agency costs, and which has a negative impact on the success of the project and the company (Nusraningrum and Jaswati and Thamrin 2020) . The opportunistic behaviour of designers can be solved by creating an adequate work contract that should ensure the satisfaction of the goals of the designer and the owner of the company (Erikson and Knockaert 2021) .

The research results have scientific and practical contributions. Scientific contributions refer to new scientific facts and insights in the definition of agency problems in the development of information systems, which relate to: conflict of interest between the owner and the designer, avoidance of tasks by the designer, collection of private information and poor use of tools and techniques for project control. It is especially important to emphasize that the agency problems are described in detail and that a questionnaire was created that can determine the views of the designers in relation to the agency problems. The paper presents a model for solving agency problems in order to improve the success of projects and companies in the field of information systems development.

Research can serve practical purposes for researchers, company owners and designers.

Researchers will receive a model for solving agency problems in companies developing information systems projects. They also received a questionnaire to determine the designer's views related to agency problems. Researchers could include more different companies from different sectors in future research and improve the questionnaire. They could also estimate direct and indirect agency costs.

Information systems designers will receive additional information about agency problems that will be useful when negotiating an employment contract. By creating an adequate work contract, designers will strive to achieve their goals, as well as the goals of the company owner. Also, the obtained information can be used in the project management process with the aim of improving the success of the project and the company.

Company owners will receive information based on which they will be able to reduce the opportunistic behaviour of designers and reduce agency costs. All this will affect the success of the project and the company.

CONCLUSION

The success rate of information systems development projects is very low. Agency theory explains that low success rate is related to agency problems.

This research has shown that avoiding the execution of tasks by programmers and not using tools and techniques for project control have the greatest impact on project completion deadlines.

It is especially important to highlight the role of monitoring in following up the designer and the project. Monitoring has a positive effect on the success of the project and the company. These findings indicate that project owners and managers must use more monitoring, but also techniques and tools for project control to improve the level of project success.

The opportunistic behaviour of designers and increasing their satisfaction is most effectively solved by creating an adequate work contract. Employment contracts should increase the satisfaction of designers, achieve the goals of the owner, and increase the level of success of the project and the company.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 03.05.2023.
Rad odobren: 16.06.2023.

UDK 339.923(4-672EU):338.486.1.02(497.6+497.4)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330149D
COBISS.RS-ID 138849793
Pregledni rad

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ULOGA EVROPSKE UNIJE U IMPLEMENTACIJI PROGRAMA NATURA 2000: RAZLIKE IZMEĐU SLOVENIJE I BOSNE I HERCEGOVINE

Rezime: *Implementacija Nature 2000 u zemljama jugoistočne Evrope je došla u trenutku pregovora za ulazak u Evropsku uniju. U proces implementacije su bili uključeni predstavnici vladinih i nevladinih organizacija. Uloge različitih aktera u procesu implementacije Nature 2000 su istraživane širom Evrope. Takva istraživanja su vrlo važna za dalji proces upravljanja Naturom 2000. Uloga Evropske unije u implementaciji Nature 2000 u Sloveniji i BiH i njihove razlike još nisu istražene. Cilj istraživanja je proučiti ulogu Evropske unije na području Slovenije i Bosne i Hercegovine, uporediti je između dve države te pronaći sličnosti i razlike između ostalih zemalja Evropske unije. U tu svrhu koristi se naučna literatura koja opisuje ulogu Evropske unije u implementaciji Nature 2000 u cijeloj Evropskoj uniji, kao i intervjui sa učesnicima implementacije Nature 2000 u obje zemlje. U diskusiji se navodi uloga EU u procesu implementacije Nature 2000, kao što je finansiranje implementacije međunarodnog zakonodavstva u nacionalno zakonodavstvo i njihov doprinos, finansiranje jačanja institucija za zaštitu prirode, uključivanje svih aktera ili zainteresiranih strana u nacionalni sistem zaštite prirode. U zaključcima se navode pozitivni doprinosi EU u obje zemlje, poput jačanja državnog zakonodavstva, struke i institucija. EU nije doprinijela razvoju nevladinog sektora na cijelom području Slovenije i BiH.*

Ključne riječi: *Natura 2000, Evropska unija, Slovenija, Bosna i Hercegovina*

JEL klasifikacija: *Q58*

UVOD

Implementacija programa Natura 2000 u zemljama Evropske unije.
Uz klimatske promjene, gubitak biodiverziteta predstavlja jedan od najvećih aktuelnih ekoloških problema (Baker 2003). Zbog toga je zaštita prirode postala važan globalni izazov. Evropska unija (EU) igra važnu ulogu u globalnoj politici zaštite prirode, jer 27 država je u sastavu zajedničke politike. Zajednička politika zaštite prirode EU se temelji na međunarodnim ciljevima održivog razvoja (Šobot 2022). Ovi ciljevi su oblikovani iz ciljeva međunarodnih direktiva, kao što su Direktiva o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktiva o zaštiti prirodnih staništa te divlje faune i flore. Ove direktive predstavljaju program Natura 2000 za područje EU.
Program Natura 2000 (N2000) je obavezan za sve zemlje članice EU. Implementacija N2000 u državama jugoistočne Evrope (JIE) započela je u trenutku predpristupnih i pristupnih razgovora za priključenje EU. Implementacija je dovela do promjena u zakonodavstvu u ovim državama. Te se promjene prvenstveno odnose na promjenu odnosa snaga u odlučivanju između državnih i nedržavnih učesnika u sistemu zaštite prirode te uključivanje novih aktera (Šobot i Lukšič 2020a).

Obaveza donošenja novih direktiva, kao što su Direktiva o slobodnom pristupu informacijama o zaštiti životne sredine i Direktiva o procjeni uticaja nekih javnih i privatnih projekata na životnu sredinu, koji su dio Aarhuške konvencije, doprinose procesu demokratizacije (Šobot i Lukšič 2020b). Aarhuška konvencija doprinosi i promjeni u sistemu odlučivanja zaštite prirode, tačnije uspostavi sistema od više-nivoa upravljanja. Sistem od više-nivoa upravljanja doprinosi uključivanju svih zainteresovanih strana u zaštitu prirode (Šobot 2022).
Uloga aktera u sistemu upravljanja N2000 predstavlja podjelu odgovornosti između različitih politika (vlada, nevladine organizacije i EU) na više nivoa upravljanja (lokalni, državni i međunarodni). Uspostava sistema od više-nivoa upravljanja N2000, u praksi, dovodi do podjele vlasti između viših nivoa upravljanja (vladine organizacije) i nižih nivoa upravljanja (nevladine organizacije) te uključivanja međunarodnih aktera u sistem odlučivanja (Cent i Grodzińska-Jurczak i Pietrzyk-Kaszyńska 2014). Sistem od više-nivoa poboljšava povezanost aktera i smanjuje uticaj državnih institucija (Newig i Fritsch 2009). Međusobna saradnja između vladinih i nevladinih aktera u sistemu od više-nivoa je sve jača (Šobot 2022). Upravljanje na više-nivoa predstavlja komunikaciju, saradnju i koordinaciju između različitih aktera na organizacijskom nivou te tako predstavlja novi model upravljanja u državnim sistemima zaštite prirode (Lockwood i saradnici 2009).
EU je potpisala Bijelu knjigu o upravljanju, koja jasno definiše nove načine upravljanja (Brown 2013). Bijela knjiga o upravljanju definiše niz normativnih načela (Jordan 2008) koja su uključena u Aarhušku konvenciju (pristup informacijama, mogućnost saradnje u donošenju odluka i pristup pravosuđu). Načela Aarhuške konvencije su temeljna vodilja za planiranje, implementaciju i upravljanje međunarodnim obavezama u nacionalnim sistemima od strane vladinih i nevladinih aktera, dok međunarodni akteri poput EU imaju različite uloge (Šobot i Lukšič 2016; Šobot i Lukšič 2017; Šobot i Lukšič 2019; Šobot i Lukšič 2020a, Šobot i Lukšič 2020b).
Cilj istraživanja je jasno definisati ulogu EU i njene doprinose u državnom sistemu zaštite prirode u procesu implementacije N2000. Pored toga, jasno će se definisati nedostaci uloge EU u procesu implementacije N2000 na osnovu prakse drugih država članica. Na kraju će se definisati šta je potrebno učiniti u budućnosti. Svrha ovog istraživanja je nastavak razvoja sistema upravljanja N2000 u Sloveniji i Bosni i Hercegovini.

1. LITERATURNI PREGLED - ULOGA EU U IMPLEMENTACIJI PROGRAMA NATURA 2000

Razni istraživači N2000 su pisali o različitim ulogama EU u toku implementacije N2000 u novim državama članicama: Grčka (Dimitrakopoulos i saradnici 2010; Apostolopoulou i Drakou i Pediaditi 2012), Austrija (Arnberger i saradnici 2012; Geitzenauer i Hogl i Weiss 2016), Holandija (Beunen i de Vries 2011), Češka (Cent i Grodzińska-Jurczak i Pietrzyk-Kaszyńska 2014; Krenova i Kindlmann 2015), Italija (Ferranti i Beunen i Speranza 2010), Poljska (Grodzinska-Jurczak i Cent 2011; Pietrzyk-Kaszyńska i saradnici 2012; Niedziałkowski i saradnici 2015), Hrvatska (Kay 2014; Šobot i Lukšič 2016) Slovačka (Kluvánková-Oravská i saradnici 2009), Rumunija (Stringer i Paavola 2013; Manolache i saradnici 2017), Francuska (Teofili i Battisti 2011), Mađarska (Mertens 2013), Slovenija (Šobot i Lukšič 2017), Finska (Hiedanpaa 2002), Bosna i Hercegovina (Šobot i Lukšič 2019). Više zemalja (Louette i saradnici 2011; Kati i saradnici 2014; Winter i saradnici 2014; Winkel i saradnici 2015).
Na osnovu odabranih naučnih radova prepoznate su tri važne uloge:
- Prva uloga je finansiranje implementacije Direktive o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktive o zaštiti prirodnih staništa i divljih životinjskih i biljnih vrsta u državnom zakonodavstvu novih članica EU. Finansiranje implementacije međunarodnog zakonodavstva povezanog sa N2000 većinom se izvodilo preko predpristupnih programa finansijske pomoći za jugoistočnu Evropu, kao što su Life + (Instrument finansiranja zaštite životne sredine), IPA (Instrument pred-pristupne finansijske

pomoći), prekogranične saradnje i programa strukturnog finansiranja EU (Stubbs 2005; Wurzel 2008; Ferranti i Beunen i Speranza 2010; Mertens 2013; Kati i saradnici 2014). Osim toga, organizacije iz EU su savjetovale nacionalne organizacije u implementaciji međunarodnih direktiva u nacionalno zakonodavstvo. Savjetovanje se temelji na prenosu znanja iz drugih zemalja EU koje su implementirale ciljeve Natura 2000 (Giljum i saradnici 2005; Carmin 2010).

- Druga uloga je finansiranje jačanja organizacija za zaštitu prirode od strane EU.

Širenje EU na zemlje srednje i istočne Evrope je doprinijelo jačanju institucionalnih kapaciteta za zaštitu prirode. U tim zemljama je EU postala državni akter (Mertens 2013), jer je velikim dijelom koordinisala i finansirala jačanje državnih organizacija koje su se transformirale i osnivale nove organizacije, poput Zavoda za zaštitu prirode. Zaposleni su novi stručnjaci specijalizovani za pojedinačna područja zaštite prirode ili N2000 (Stubbs 2005; Wurzel 2008; Ferranti i Beunen i Speranza 2010; Mertens 2013; Kati i saradnici 2014).

- Treća uloga je uključivanje svih aktera ili zainteresovanih strana u državni sistem zaštite prirode uz pomoć EU.

Implementacija N2000 uključuje saradnju sa različitim institucijama i različitim akterima unutar različitih nivoa sistema zaštite prirode, koji uključuju različite državne prioritete. EU podržava uključivanje različitih aktera u donošenje odluka (Beunen i de Vries 2011) u skladu sa načelima Aarhuške konvencije. U procesu uspostave Sistema od više nivoa N2000 EU podržava uključivanje nevladinih aktera (Newig i Fritsch 2009; Carmin 2010) te podstiče učestvovanje javnosti u donošenju odluka o zaštiti prirode na državnom nivou (Hartley i Wood 2005; Stringer i Paavola 2013). Ona svim učesnicima osigurava ista prava prema Aarhuškoj konvenciji, čime se doprinosi efikasnosti državnog zakonodavstva i razvoju sistema zaštite prirode na državnom nivou (Kohler-Koch i Rittberger 2006). Na takav način je EU postala čuvar međunarodnih ciljeva zaštite prirode na državnom nivou (Jordan 1998), što značajno doprinosi transparentnosti nacionalnog zakonodavstva.

2. METODOLOGIJA

Metodologija se temelji na komparativnoj analizi dva područja (Slovenije i BiH). Autor je već objavio naučne radove za područje Slovenije i BiH (Šobot i Lukšič 2017; Šobot i Lukšič 2019) o implementaciji N2000. Ova dva članka su osnova za istraživanje uloge EU u implementaciji N2000. Metoda rada se temelji na pregledu naučne literature o ulozi EU. Na osnovu pregleda literature su kreirana tri istraživačka pitanja:

- Da li je implementacija Direktive o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktiva o zaštiti prirodnih staništa i divljih životinjskih i biljnih vrsta u nacionalno zakonodavstvo Slovenije i BiH došla iz EU?
- Da li je bilo finansiranja jačanja državnih organizacija za rad na zaštiti prirode od strane EU?
- Da li je uz pomoć EU došlo do uključivanja svih zainteresovanih strana u državni sistem zaštite prirode?

Pored toga, obavljeni su intervjui sa učesnicima implementacije N2000 u obje zemlje. U Sloveniji su prikupljena 23 intervjua (7 intervjua sa predstavnicima vladinih organizacija, 3 intervjua sa predstavnicima zaštićenih područja, 5 intervjua sa predstavnicima stručnjaka, 8 intervjua sa predstavnicima nevladinih organizacija) i 27 intervjua u BiH (7 intervjua sa predstavnicima vladinih organizacija, 5 intervjua sa predstavnicima zaštićenih područja, 5 intervjua sa predstavnicima struke, 10 intervjua sa predstavnicima nevladinih organizacija). Intervjui o ulozi EU u implementaciji N2000 je izveden u period od 2015. do 2016. godine sa 4 grupe učesnika. Odgovori su kodirani na isti način kao u člancima (Šobot i Lukšič 2017; Šobot i Lukšič 2019): predstavnici vladinih organizacija - V, predstavnici nevladinih organizacija - N, stručnjaci - E, predstavnici zaštićenih područja - P. Rezultati i diskusija su izvedeni preko pregledna literature i istraživačkih pitanja te kroz intervjue i odgovore učesnika u implementaciji N2000. U zaključcima su predstavljene osnovne uloge i doprinosi EU u implementaciji N2000 te razlike između Slovenije i BiH.

3. REZULTATI I DISKUSIJA

U Sloveniji je EU finansirala i savjetodavno koordinisala sve projekte za implementaciju N2000 (V1, V7, P1, N1, E1, E2). EU je imala sličnu ulogu u BiH (V1, V2, P1, N4, E10). Ovi projekti doveli su do implementacije ciljeva Direktive o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktive o zaštiti prirodnih staništa divlje flore i faune. Slično je bilo i u Slovačkoj, Češkoj, Rumuniji, Mađarskoj i Grčkoj (članci za pojedine zemlje navedeni su u literaturnom pregledu). Finansiranje sa strane EU je osiguralo implementaciju međunarodnog ekološkog prava u nacionalnu legislativu na području zaštite prirode u Sloveniji (V1, V7) i BiH (V5, V6, P5, N4, E8). Međunarodno ekološko pravo je središnja komponenta zaštite prirode u implementaciji i izvođenju N2000 u zemljama jugoistočne Evrope (Šobot i Lukšič 2016, 2017, 2019). Primjena međunarodnog zakonodavstva u Sloveniji je dovela do povećanja informacija o broju i statusu vrsta (prema Direktivi o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktivi o zaštiti prirodnih staništa i divljih životinjskih i biljnih vrsta) u cijeloj državi te njihovu vrijednost u odnosu na druge zemlje (V2, E1, E2, E3). Slično je bilo u Češkoj, Slovačkoj, Austriji, Grčkoj, Holandiji, Francuskoj, Poljskoj i Italiji (članci za pojedine zemlje navedeni su u literaturnom pregledu). U Bosni i Hercegovini je EU postala državni savjetnik za sve buduće planove zaštite prirode (V1, V2, V3, V4, V5, E5, E6). Slično je bilo u Mađarskoj (članci za pojedine zemlje navedeni su u literaturnom pregledu). Na ovaj način je uvedena nova praksa u prenosu informacija, koja je prepoznata kao važna u svim procesima zaštite prirode. U Sloveniji je EU prepoznata kao čuvar ciljeva Direktive o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktive o očuvanju prirodnih staništa i divljih životinjskih i biljnih vrsta, s ciljem da oni ostanu nepromijenjeni pod uticajem domaćeg zakonodavstva (V1, V2, V6, P1, N4, N5, E3). Slična praksa je bila u Austriji, Italiji i Češkoj (članci za pojedine zemlje su navedene u literaturnom pregledu). Nepromjenjivost međunarodnih pravila u državnom zakonodavstvu dovela je do promjene postojeće prakse usklađivanja s državnim zakonodavstvom (V1, V2, V4, V6, V7, P1, P2, N1, N3, N4, N5, E1, E3, E5). Dotadašnja praksa se temeljila na promjenljivosti poštovanja državnog zakonodavstva. Političari (stranke) su mijenjali zakonodavstvo često zbog svojih interesa. Nakon usvajanja međunarodnog zakonodavstva i njegove implementacije u nacionalno zakonodavstvo, više nije postojala mogućnost mijenjanja nacionalnog zakonodavstva od strane političara. To se odrazilo na državnom nivou (V1, V3, N3, N5, E2, E3) sa promjenom sistema upravljanja prirodnih resursa. Upravljanje prirodnim resursima počelo se temeljiti na procesu planiranja i međusektorskoj saradnji u koju se mogu uključiti sve zainteresovane strane (vladine i nevladine organizacije).

Međunarodno zakonodavsto je praktično doprinijelo povećanju informisanosti o važnim staništima i vrstama ptica prema Direktivi o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktivi o zaštiti prirodnih staništa i divljih životinjskih i biljnih vrsta u Sloveniji i Bosni i Hercegovini. Na temelju ovih podataka, trećina Slovenije je zaštićena sa Direktivom o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktivi o zaštiti prirodnih staništa i divljih životinjskih i biljnih vrsta. U BiH je predviđena zaštita za 1/5 zemlje. Na osnovu toga su u Sloveniji i BiH uspostavljena nova zaštićena područja te su zaposleni novi stručnjaci za zaštitu prirode unutar nacionalnog sistema zaštite prirode obje zemlje. Tako je bilo u Austriji, Češkoj, Slovačkoj, Rumuniji, Grčkoj, Austriji, Francuskoj i Italiji (članci za pojedine zemlje su navedene u literaturnom pregledu). EU je finansirala jačanje državnih institucija i prenijela iskustva iz drugih zemalja u uspostavi novih institucija i razvoju sistema zaštite prirode u Sloveniji. Finansiranjem i savjetovanjem organizacija iz EU nadležno ministarstvo je promijenilo unutrašnju strukturu Slovenije (V1, V2, V3). Zavod za zaštitu prirode je osnovan kao stručna ustanova koja se bavi zaštitom prirode za potrebe N2000 u Sloveniji (V1, V2, V3, N2, N3, P1, E1, E2, E4). U BiH nije došlo do promjene unutrašnje strukture ministarstva, niti je došlo do osnivanja Zavoda za zaštitu prirode na državnom nivou.

Prikupljanjem informacija o staništima i vrstama N2000 u Sloveniji, porasla je saradnja i komunikacija u zaštiti prirode u svim sektorima (V3, V4, V5 N2, E2, E3). Slično je bilo u Češkoj, Rumuniji, Mađarskoj, Poljskoj, Slovačkoj i Bosni i Hercegovini (članci za pojedine zemlje su navedene u literaturnom pregledu), što je, takođe, dovelo do promjena sektorskih politika i uvođenja novih praksi. Nove prakse su zahtijevale promjene u državnom sistemu zaštite prirode, dostupnost sistema široj javnosti, što ranije nije bila praksa u Sloveniji (V1, N1, N4, E1, E2, E3, E4, E6). Slično je bilo u Bosni i Hercegovini, gdje je kreirana prva politika zaštite prirode na državnom nivou – Strategija i Akcioni plan zaštite biodiverziteta od 2015. do 2020. godine. Nevladine organizacije Slovenije uključile su svu zainteresovanu javnost (N1, N2, N3, E1, E3, E4) u proces donošenja odluke o uspostavi sistema N2000. Na taj način je po prvi put u sistemu zaštite prirode Slovenije učestvovanje javnosti u procesima oblikovanja politike zaštite prirode shvaćeno kao mogućnost uticanja na donošenje odluka na državnom nivou (N2, E3, E5). Ljudi su uvidjeli da učestvovanje u procesu donošenja odluka (kreiranja novih politika, npr. N2000) mogu uticati na odluke Ministarstva i tako dali svoj puni doprinos zaštite prirode. To je dovelo do promjena u praksi, do povećanja broja saradnika u zaštiti prirode, do poštovanja svih učesnika u sistemu odluka i većeg poštovanja zakonodavstva. Po prvi put u Bosni i Hercegovini, vladini i nevladini akteri su zajednički kreirali politiku zaštite prirode za cijelu državu, što je dovelo do promjene dotadašnje prakse. Zbog toga je nevladin sektor iz većih gradova u BiH imao veći razvoj. Nevladin sektor se razvio se i u Češkoj, Slovačkoj, Poljskoj, Mađarskoj, Italiji i Grčkoj (članci za pojedine zemlje navedeni u literaturnom pregledu).

EU je, kao čuvar međunarodnog ekološkog prava (Jordan 1998), zamrznula sredstva za Sloveniju (E3) zbog kontroverznih situacija koje su nastale između vladinih i nevladinih aktera u procesu impelementacije N2000. Riječ je o mehanizmu kojim EU ne učestvije direktno u odnosima između strana (vladinih i nevladinih aktera), već štiti transnacionalne interese i poziva učesnike na saradnju u pronalaženju rješenja. U Bosni i Hercegovini nije bilo takve prakse.

ZAKLJUČAK

EU je finansirala implementaciju Direktive o zaštiti divljih ptica i Direktive o zaštiti prirodnih staništa i divljih životinjskih i biljnih vrsta u nacionalno zakonodavstvo Slovenije i Bosne i Hercegovine. To je pridonijelo povećanju informacija o broju i statusu vrsta. Slično je bilo i u svim ostalim zemljama EU.

U Bosni i Hercegovini je EU postala državni savjetnik za proces implementacije N2000, slično kao u Mađarskoj. Na ovaj način su se informacije iz EU ili drugih država članica prenosile u Bosnu i Hercegovinu.

U Sloveniji je EU postala čuvar međunarodnih prava u državnom zakonodavstvu. Time su postigli veću usklađenost sa zakonodavstvom i uključivanje većeg broja učesnika u proces implementacije N2000.

Za razliku od Bosne i Hercegovine, Slovenija je doživjela transformaciju državnih institucija (ministarstva) i uspostavu novih (nova zaštićena područja). U Sloveniji je, takođe, povećana unutarsektorska i međusektorska saradnja državnih institucija, slično kao u Češkoj, Rumuniji, Mađarskoj, Poljskoj i Slovačkoj.

U BiH je došlo do velikog razvoja nevladinog sektora u većim gradovima, poput Češke, Slovačke, Poljske, Mađarske, Italije i Grčke.

Pozitivni doprinosi EU u obje zemlje su jačanje državnog zakonodavstva, jačanje struke zaštite prirode, jačanje organizacija za zaštitu prirode i veća uključenost javnosti u sistem zaštite prirode. EU nije doprinijela razvoju nevladinog sektora na cijelom području Slovenije i BiH. Više su se razvile nevladine organizacije iz većih gradova.

U budućnosti je vrlo važno raditi na polju većeg razvoja nevladinih organizacija iz manjih sredina te podsticati uključivanje šire javnosti u proces kreiranja politike zaštite prirode, kao što su primjeri iz razvijenih zemalja (Njemačka, Francuska, Austrija, Italija).

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 03/05/2023
The paper accepted: 16/06/2023

UDK 339.923(4-672EU):338.486.1.02(497.6+497.4)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330159D
COBISS.RS-ID 138852353
Review

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THE ROLE OF THE EUROPEAN UNION IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATURA 2000 PROGRAMME: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SLOVENIA AND BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

Summary: *The implementation of Natura 2000 in the countries of Southeast Europe came at the time of negotiations for entry into the European Union. Representatives of governmental and non-governmental organizations were involved in the implementation process. The roles of different actors in the implementation process of Natura 2000 were investigated across Europe. Such research is very important for the further process of managing Natura 2000. The role of the European Union in the implementation of Natura 2000 in Slovenia and BiH and their differences have not yet been investigated. The aim of the research is to study the role of the European Union in the territory of Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina, to compare it between the two countries, and to find similarities and differences between other European Union countries. For this purpose, scientific literature is used to describe the role of the European Union in the implementation of Natura 2000 throughout the European Union, as well as interviews with participants in the implementation of Natura 2000 in both countries. The discussion mentions the role of the EU in the implementation process of Natura 2000, such as financing the implementation of international legislation into national legislation and their contribution, financing the strengthening of institutions for nature protection, the inclusion of all actors or interested parties in the national system of nature protection. The conclusions state the EU's positive contributions in both countries, such as the strengthening of national legislation, the profession, and institutions. The EU did not contribute to the development of the non-governmental sector in the entire territory of Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina.*

Key words: *Natura 2000, European Union, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina*

JEL classification*: Q58*

INTRODUCTION

Implementation of the natura 2000 programme in EU countries.
Along with climate change, biodiversity loss is one of the biggest current environmental problems (Baker 2003). This is why nature protection has become an important global challenge. The European Union (EU) plays an important role in the global nature protection policy because 27 countries are part of the common policy. The EU's common nature protection policy is based on the international goals of sustainable development (Šobot 2022). These goals are modeled on the goals of international directives, such as the Directive on the protection of wild birds and the Directive on the protection of natural habitats and wild fauna and flora. These directives represent the Natura 2000 program for the EU area.

The Natura 2000 (N2000) program is mandatory for all EU member states. The implementation of N2000 in the countries of Southeast Europe (SEE) began at the time of the pre-accession and accession negotiations for joining the EU. Implementation led to changes in legislation in these states. These changes primarily relate to the change in the balance of power in decision-making between state and non-state actors in the nature protection system and the inclusion of new actors (Šobot and Lukšič 2020a). The obligation to adopt new directives, such as the directive on free access to information on environmental protection and the directive on the environmental impact assessment of some public and private projects, which are part of the Aarhus Convention, contribute to the democratization process (Šobot and Lukšič 2020b). The Aarhus Convention also contributes to the change in the decision-making system of nature protection, more precisely the establishment of a multi-level governance system. The multi-level governance system contributes to the inclusion of all parties interested in nature protection (Šobot 2022).

The role of actors in the N2000 governance system represents the division of responsibilities between different policies (government, non-governmental organizations and the EU) at multiple levels of governance (local, national, and international). The establishment of a multi-level governance system N2000 in practice leads to the division of power between higher levels of governance (governmental organizations) and lower levels of governance (non-governmental organizations) and the inclusion of international actors in the decision-making system (Cent and Grodzińska-Jurczak and Pietrzyk-Kaszyńska 2014). A multi-level system improves the connection of actors and reduces the influence of state institutions (Newig and Fritsch 2009). Cooperation between governmental and non-governmental actors in the multi-level governance system is getting stronger (Šobot 2022). Multi-level governance represents communication, cooperation, and coordination between different actors at the organisational level and thus represents a new model of management in state nature protection systems (Lockwood et al. 2009).

The EU has signed a White Paper on governance that clearly defines new ways of governance (Brown 2013). The white book on governance defines several normative principles (Jordan 2008) that are included in the Aarhus Convention (access to information, the possibility of cooperation in decision-making, and access to justice). The principles of the Aarhus Convention are the basic guidelines for the planning, implementation, and management of international obligations in national systems by governmental and non-governmental actors, while international actors such as the EU have different roles (Šobot and Lukšič 2016; Šobot and Lukšič 2017; Šobot and Lukšič 2019; Šobot and Lukšič 2020a, Šobot and Lukšič 2020b).

The goal of the research is to clearly define the role of the EU and its contributions in the state system of nature protection in the process of implementing N2000. In addition, the shortcomings of the EU's role in the N2000 implementation process will be clearly defined based on the practice of other member states. At the end, what needs to be done in the future will be defined. The purpose of this research is to continue the development of the N2000 governance system in Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW - THE ROLE OF THE EU IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATURA 2000 PROGRAMME

Various N2000 researchers have written about the different roles of the EU during the implementation of N2000 in the new member states: Greece (Dimitrakopoulos et al. 2010; Apostolopoulou and Drakou and Pediaditi 2012), Austria (Arnberger et al. 2012; Geitzenauer and Hogl and Weiss 2016), the Netherlands (Beunen and de Vries 2011), Czech Republic (Cent and Grodzińska-Jurczak and Pietrzyk-Kaszyńska 2014; Krenova and Kindlmann 2015), Italy (Ferranti and Beunen and Speranza 2010), Poland (Grodzinska-Jurczak and Cent 2011; Pietrzyk-Kaszyńska et al. 2012; Niedziałkowski et al. 2015), Croatia (Kay 2014; Šobot and Lukšič 2016), Slovakia

(Kluvánková-Oravská et al. 2009), Romania (Stringer and Paavola 2013; Manolache et al. 2017), France (Teofili and Battisti 2011), Hungary (Mertens 2013), Slovenia (Šobot and Lukšič 2017), Finland (Hiedanpaa 2002), Bosnia and Herzegovina (Šobot and Lukšič 2019), Several countries (Louette et al. 2011; Kati et al. 2014; Winter et al. 2014; Winkel et al. 2015).
Based on the selected scientific works, three important roles were recognized:
- The first role is financing the implementation of the Directive on the protection of wild birds and the Directive on the protection of natural habitats and wild animal and plant species in the state legislation of the new EU members.
Financing of the implementation of international legislation related to N2000 was mostly carried out through pre-accession financial assistance programs for South-Eastern Europe, such as Life + (Environmental Protection Financing Instrument), IPA (Pre-accession Financial Assistance Instrument), cross-border cooperation and structural financing programs EU (Stubbs 2005; Wurzel 2008; Ferranti and Beunen and Speranza 2010; Mertens 2013; Kati et al. 2014). In addition, organizations from the EU advised national organizations in the implementation of international directives into national legislation. The consultation is based on the transfer of knowledge from other EU countries that have implemented Natura 2000 goals (Giljum et al. 2005; Carmin 2010).
- Another role is financing the strengthening of nature protection organizations by the EU.
The expansion of the EU to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe has contributed to the strengthening of institutional capacities for nature protection. In these countries, the EU became a state actor (Mertens 2013), because it largely coordinated and financed the strengthening of state organizations that transformed and founded new organizations, such as the Institute for Nature Protection. New experts specialized in individual nature protection areas or N2000 were employed (Stubbs 2005; Wurzel 2008; Ferranti and Beunen and Speranza 2010; Mertens 2013; Kati et al. 2014).
- The third role is the inclusion of all actors or interested parties in the state system of nature protection with the help of the EU.
Implementing N2000 involves cooperation with different institutions and actors within different levels of the nature protection system, including different state priorities. The EU supports the involvement of different actors in decision-making (Beunen and de Vries 2011), in accordance with the principles of the Aarhus Convention. In the process of establishing the multi-level system of N2000, the EU supports the inclusion of non-governmental actors (Newig and Fritsch 2009; Carmin 2010) and encourages public participation in decision-making on nature protection at the state level (Hartley and Wood 2005; Stringer and Paavola 2013). It provides all participants with the same rights according to the Aarhus Convention, which contributes to the efficiency of state legislation and the development of the nature protection system at the state level (Kohler-Koch and Rittberger 2006). In this way, the EU has become the guardian of international nature protection goals at the state level (Jordan 1998), significantly contributing to the national legislation's transparency.

2. METHODOLOGY

The methodology is based on a comparative analysis of two areas (Slovenia and BiH). The author has already published scientific papers for the area of Slovenia and BiH (Šobot and Lukšič 2017; Šobot and Lukšič 2019) on the implementation of N2000. These two articles are the basis for researching the role of the EU in the implementation of N2000. The work method is based on a review of the scientific literature on the role of the EU. Based on the literature review, three research questions were created:
- Did the implementation of the directive on the protection of wild birds and the directive on the protection of natural habitats and wild animal and plant species into the national legislation of Slovenia and BiH come from the EU?

- Has the EU funded the strengthening of state organizations for work on nature protection?
- Did the EU help include all interested parties in the state system of nature protection?

In addition, interviews were conducted with the participants of the N2000 implementation in both countries. 23 interviews were collected in Slovenia (7 interviews with representatives of government organizations, 3 interviews with representatives of protected areas, 5 interviews with representatives of experts, 8 interviews with representatives of non-governmental organizations) and 27 interviews in BiH (7 interviews with representatives of government organizations, 5 interviews with representatives of protected areas, 5 interviews with representatives of the profession, 10 interviews with representatives of non-governmental organizations). Interviews about the role of the EU in the implementation of N2000 were conducted in the period of 2015-2016 with 4 groups of participants. Answers were coded in the same way as in the articles (Šobot and Lukšič 2017; Šobot and Lukšič 2019): representatives of government organizations - V, representatives of non-governmental organizations - N, experts - E, representatives of protected areas - P. The results and discussion were carried out through transparent literature and research questions and through interviews and responses of participants in the implementation of N2000. The basic roles and contributions of the EU in the implementation of N2000 and the differences between Slovenia and BiH are presented in the conclusion.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In Slovenia, the EU financed and advisedly coordinated all projects for the implementation of N2000 (V1, V7, P1, N1, E1, E2). The EU had a similar role in BiH (V1, V2, P1, N4, E10). These projects led to the implementation of the objectives of the directive on the protection of wild birds and the directive on the protection of natural habitats of wild flora and fauna. It was similar in Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Romania, Hungary, and Greece (articles for individual countries are listed in the literature review). Funding from the EU ensured the implementation of international environmental law in national legislation in the field of nature protection in Slovenia (V1, V7) and BiH (V5, V6, P5, N4, E8). International environmental law is a central component of nature protection in the implementation and execution of N2000 in the countries of Southeast Europe (Šobot and Lukšič 2016, 2017, 2019). The application of international legislation in Slovenia has led to an increase in information on the number and status of species (according to the directive on the protection of wild birds and the directive on the protection of natural habitats and wild animal and plant species) throughout the country and their value in relation to other countries (V2, E1 , E2, E3). It was similar in the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Austria, Greece, the Netherlands, France, Poland, and Italy (articles for individual countries are listed in the literature review). In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the EU has become the state advisor for all future nature protection plans (V1, V2, V3, V4, V5, E5, E6).

It was similar in Hungary (articles for individual countries are listed in the literature review). In this way, a new practice was introduced in the transmission of information, which is recognized as important in all processes of nature protection. In Slovenia, the EU is recognized as the guardian of the objectives of the directive on the protection of wild birds and the directive on the conservation of natural habitats and wild animal and plant species, with the aim that they remain unchanged under the influence of domestic legislation (V1, V2, V6, P1, N4, N5, E3). A similar practice happened in Austria, Italy, and the Czech Republic (articles for individual countries are listed in the literature review). The immutability of international rules in state legislation led to a change in the existing practice of harmonization with state legislation (V1, V2, V4, V6, V7, P1, P2, N1, N3, N4, N5, E1, E3, E5). The previous practice was based on the variability of compliance with state legislation. Politicians (parties) often changed legislation for their own interests. After the adoption of the international legislation and its implementation in the national legislation, there was no longer the possibility of changing the national legislation by politicians. This was reflected at the state level (V1, V3, N3, N5, E2, E3) with a change in the natural resource management system. The management of natural resources began to be based on the planning process and intersectoral cooperation in which all interested parties (governmental and non-governmental organizations) can be involved.

International legislation practically contributed to the increase of information about important habitats and bird species according to the directive on the protection of wild birds and the directive on the protection of natural habitats and wild animal and plant species in Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Based on these data, a third of Slovenia is protected with the directive on the protection of wild birds and the directive on the protection of natural habitats and wild animal and plant species. In BiH, protection is provided for 1/5 of the country. Based on this, new protected areas were established in Slovenia and BiH, and new nature protection experts were employed within the national nature protection system of both countries. This was the case in Austria, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Romania, Greece, Austria, France, and Italy (articles for individual countries are listed in the literature review). The EU financed the strengthening of state institutions and transferred experiences from other countries in the establishment of new institutions and the development of the nature protection system in Slovenia. By financing and consulting organizations from the EU, the competent ministry changed the internal structure of Slovenia (V1, V2, V3). The Institute for Nature Protection was established as a professional institution dealing with nature protection for the needs of N2000 in Slovenia (V1, V2, V3, N2, N3, P1, E1, E2, E4). In BiH, there was no change in the internal structure of the ministry, nor was the establishment of the Institute for Nature Protection at the state level.

Collecting information on habitats and species N2000 in Slovenia, cooperation and communication in nature protection increased in all sectors (V3, V4, V5 N2, E2, E3). It was similar in the Czech Republic, Romania, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina (articles for individual countries are listed in the literature review), which also led to changes in sectoral policies and the introduction of new practices. New practices required changes in the state system of nature protection, and availability of the system to the general public, which was not a practice in Slovenia before (V1, N1, N4, E1, E2, E3, E4, E6). It was similar in Bosnia and Herzegovina, where the first nature protection policy at the state level was created - the Strategy and Action Plan for the Protection of Biodiversity from 2015 to 2020. Non-governmental organizations of Slovenia included all interested public (N1, N2, N3, E1, E3, E4) in the process of planning the establishment of the N2000 system. In this way, for the first time in the nature protection system of Slovenia, public participation in the processes of shaping the nature protection policy was understood as an opportunity to influence decision-making at the state level (N2, E3, E5). People realized that participating in the decision-making process (creation of new policies, e.g. N2000) could influence the decisions of the Ministry and thus made their full contribution to nature protection. This led to changes in practice, an increase in the number of collaborators in nature protection, respect for all participants in the system of decisions, and greater respect for legislation. For the first time in Bosnia and Herzegovina, governmental and non-governmental actors jointly created a nature protection policy for the entire country, which led to a change in the previous practice. Because of this, the non-governmental sector from larger cities in Bosnia and Herzegovina had a greater development. The non-governmental sector has also developed in the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland, Hungary, Italy, and Greece (articles for individual countries listed in the literature review). The EU, as the guardian of international environmental law (Jordan 1998), froze funds for Slovenia (E3) due to controversial situations that arose between governmental and non-governmental actors in the process of N2000 implementation. It is a mechanism by which the EU does not participate directly in the relations between the parties (governmental and non-governmental actors), but rather protects transnational interests and invites the participants to cooperate in finding a solution. There was no such practice in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

CONCLUSION

The EU financed the implementation of the directive on the protection of wild birds and the directive on the protection of natural habitats and wild animal and plant species into the national legislation of Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. This contributed to the increase of information on the number and status of species. It was similar in all other EU countries.
In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the EU became a state advisor for the N2000 implementation process, like Hungary. In this way, information from the EU or other member states was transferred to Bosnia and Herzegovina.
In Slovenia, the EU has become the guardian of international rights in state legislation. With this, they achieved greater compliance with the legislation and the inclusion of a greater number of participants in the N2000 implementation process.
Unlike Bosnia and Herzegovina, Slovenia experienced the transformation of state institutions (ministries) and the establishment of new ones (new protected areas). Intra-sectoral and inter-sectoral cooperation of state institutions has also increased in Slovenia, like the Czech Republic, Romania, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia.
In Bosnia and Herzegovina, there has been a great development of the non-governmental sector in major cities, such as the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland, Hungary, Italy, and Greece.
The positive contributions of the EU in both countries are the strengthening of national legislation, the strengthening of the nature protection profession, the strengthening of nature protection organizations, and greater involvement of the public in the nature protection system.
The EU did not contribute to the development of the non-governmental sector in the entire territory of Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Non-governmental organizations from larger cities did.
In the future, it is very important to work in the field of greater development of non-governmental organizations from smaller communities and encourage the involvement of the wider public in the process of creating nature protection policies, such as examples from developed countries (Germany, France, Austria, Italy).

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 03.05.2023.
Rad odobren: 05.06.2023.

UDK 340.142:342.565.2(4-672EU)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330169T
COBISS.RS-ID 138850049
Pregledni rad

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(NE)FUNKCIONISANJE WTO TIJELA ZA ŽALBE

Rezime: *U ovom radu, upotrebom strukturalno-funkcionalne, komparativne i uzročno-posljedične analize, ukazujući na fakticitet u mjeri u kojoj je to nužno, istražuje se status sistema rješavanja sporova u okviru Svjetske trgovinske organizacije (WTO), poklanjajući značajnu pažnju blokadi u kojoj se našlo Žalbeno tijelo kao dio tog sistema. Istražuje se funkcija Multilateralnog privremenog žalbenog arbitražnog aranžmana (MPIA) u namjeri da se spozna da li aranžman pretenduje da „na mala vrata“, uz određenu doradu, preuzme ulogu Žalbenog tijela. Daje se osvrt na stanovište koje u pogledu statusa sistema rješavanja sporova u okviru WTO zastupa Evropska unija te se ukazuje i na međunarodne ugovore o slobodnoj trgovini „nove generacije“ koje evropska organizacija zaključuje sa trećim zemljama i koji se nakon neuspješnih pregovora iz Dohe sve više afirmišu. Na kraju analize data su zaključna razmatranja autora.*

Ključne riječi: *WTO, Evropska unija, Žalbeno tijelo, MPIA, slobodna trgovina*

JEL klasifikacija: *K33, K41*

UVOD

Prve decenije XX vijeka karakterišu se ulaskom država u trgovinske aranžmane radi organizovanja usmjerenog na olakšavanje trgovinskih odnosa kroz njihovo regulisanje na multilateralnoj ravni, primarno donošenjem Opšteg sporazuma o carinama i trgovini 1947. godine (GATT), kojim je sistem međunarodno priznatih pravila o trgovini uistinu i inaugurisan. Riječ je o međunarodnim pravilima koja omogućavaju jednake uslove za sve ugovornice, ponajprije kroz sniženje carina i uklanjanje drugih prepreka i eliminisanje diskriminacionog postupanja u međunarodnoj trgovini. Međunarodna trgovina se razvijala i vremenom je pored razmjene materijalnih dobara obuhvatila i razmjenu usluga te je GATT prevladan i transformisan u WTO, osnovanu nakon Urugvajskog kruga trgovinskih pregovora 1995. godine, u čiji su pravni okvir integrisani prijašnji trgovinski ugovori, poput samog GATT 1994. koji je iznjedren revizijom GATT 1947, zatim Sporazum o poljoprivredi, Sporazum o tekstilu i odjeći te drugi opšti sporazumi, među kojima su krucijalni bili Opšti sporazum o trgovini uslugama (GATS) i Sporazum o trgovinskim aspektima prava intelektualnog vlasništva (TRIPS). Nakon pregovora o olakšavanju trgovine pokrenutih u okviru Razvojnog plana iz Dohe i Ministarske konferencije održane na Baliju 2013. godine te po proteku više od dvije decenije od formiranja WTO, u februaru 2017. godine, ratifikacijom Čada, Jordana,

Omana i Ruande i samim tim postignutim utvrđenim pragom od 110 članica (dvije trećine ugovornica), na snagu je stupio Sporazum o olakšavanju trgovine (TFA – Trade Facilitation Agreement), koji se smatra najznačajnijim trgovinskim sporazumom ove svjetske organizacije. Očekuje se da će TFA znakovito pojednostaviti i modernizovati carinske postupke na globalnoj ravni, ali i dovesti do povećane inkluzije zemalja u razvoju u globalne lance vrijednosti. Uslijedila je i Ministarska konferencija koja je 2022. godine održana u Ženevi kada je postignut dogovor o subvencijama za ribarstvo i izmjenama TRIPS u pogledu vakcina protiv COVID-19, ali je i ukazano na potrebu bazične reforme WTO u područjima poput trgovine i zdravstva, energetike, e-trgovine, investicija i državne pomoći.
Kao bazični element trgovinskog sistema koji u okviru WTO doprinosi stabilnosti ekonomije na globalnoj ravni, primarno obezbjeđujući redukciju primjene jednostranih zaštitnih mjera za kojima su države posezale i garantujući ravnopravnost jačih i slabijih ugovornica, inaugurisano je, a potom i konsolidovano Tijelo za rješavanje sporova (DSB).
U nastavku, u okviru zasebnih naslova, koristeći strukturalno-funkcionalnu, komparativnu i uzročno-posljedičnu analizu, istražuje se način na koji se vrši rješavanje sporova u okviru WTO, pri čemu se naročita pažnja poklanja pitanju trenutnog statusa Žalbenog tijela osnovanog 1995. godine na osnovu člana 17 Memoranduma o pravilima i postupcima koji uređuju rješavanje sporova (DSU – Dispute Settlement Understanding), kao i funkcijom alternativnog mehanizma *i.e.* Multilateralnog privremenog žalbenog arbitražnog aranžmana (MPIA).

1. TIJELO ZA RJEŠAVANJE SPOROVA U WTO

U okviru WTO djeluje multilateralni sistem rješavanja sporova, jer su se ugovornice obavezale da će se suspregnuti od preduzimanja jednostranih mjera i da će poštovati ugovorene procedure kada dođe do spora, u slučaju da ugovornica usvoji mjeru trgovinske politike ili preduzme radnju koju jedna ili više ugovornica smatraju kršenjem sporazuma ili neispunjavanjem obaveza preuzetih u okviru WTO, pri čemu određena grupa zemalja može izjaviti da ima interes u dotičnom sporu i da uživa neka prava.
Postupak rješavanja sporova postojao je i prema antologijskom GATT-u, s tim da se tada nije odlikovao decidiranim vremenskim rokovima, odluke je bilo lakše blokirati, postupci su uglavnom dugo trajali bez da je bilo ishođeno rješenje, dok su se odluke donosile konsenzusom. Uslijedilo je uvođenje stukturisanijeg postupka kao posljedica Sporazuma Urugvajske runde, u smislu da su preciznije sadržinski određene faze u postupku i uvedena je veća disciplina u pogledu rokova za rješavanje sporova (do donošenja prve presude ne bi trebalo da prođe više od jedne godine, odnosno 15 mjeseci u slučaju izjavljivanja žalbe, a u slučaju kvarljive robe postupa se što hitnije), uz ipak fleksibilne rokove postavljene u različitim fazama postupka te favorizovanje brzog poravnanja kao najdjelotvornijeg ishoda svakog spora. Urugvajski sporazum je onemogućio zemlji koja izgubi spor da blokira donošenje odluke koja se sada automatski usvajala, osim ako ne bi postojao konsenzus za njeno odbacivanje. Međutim, i tada kao i danas, premda veći dio postupka podsjeća na postupak koji se vodi pred sudom ili tribunalom, bilo je poželjno rješenje pronaći dogovorno, pri čemu je prva faza postupka podrazumijevala konsultacije između dotičnih vlada, s tim da su čak i kada je slučaj uznapredovao u druge faze, konsultacije i posredovanje bili mogući.
S obzirom da je od 1995. godine, prema podacima sadržanim na oficijelnoj stranici WTO, 616 sporova podneseno toj organizaciji na rješavanje i doneseno 350 presuda, smatra se da WTO ima jedan od najaktivnijih međunarodnih mehanizama za rješavanje sporova u svijetu koji pokriva sve multilateralne trgovinske ugovore i čiju osnovu čine odredbe čl. XXII i XXIII GATT-a iz 1994. godine nadograđene naknadno formulisanim pravilima i postupcima dogovorenim među ugovornicama.
Prva faza postupka rješavanja sporova podrazumijeva da jedna ugovornica podnosi drugoj zahtjev za konsultacije o određenoj temi koje moraju započeti unutar 30 dana od podnošenja zahtjeva i

traju ukupno 60 dana, jer države u sporu moraju razgovarati da vide da li mogu riješiti međusobni nesporazum, a ukoliko to nije moguće mogu zatražiti i od generalnog direktora WTO da vrši medijaciju ili pokuša pomoći na bilo koji drugi način. Suštinski, ukoliko spor ne bude riješen u sklopu konsultacija, započinje druga faza postupka i to na način da se ugovornica (država koja je u funkciji tužioca) obraća Tijelu za rješavanje sporova (DSB – Dispute Settlement Body) da formira panel, obično sastavljen od tri nezavisna stručnjaka, kako bi pokušalo riješiti problem. Ugovornice, kao što je istaknuto, mogu svakodobno dobrovoljno upotrijebiti druge metode rješavanja sporova, uključujući vršenje uticaja, mirenje i posredovanje. Druga faza traje 45 dana za panel koji treba formirati, plus šest mjeseci za zaključivanje panela. Država koja je tužena može jednom blokirati formiranje panela, ali kada se DSB sastane drugi put te blokade više ne može biti, osim ako se u vezi sa tim ne uspostavi konsenzus. Suštinski, paneli su kao sudovi, s tom razlikom što se panelisti obično biraju u dogovoru sa zemljama u sporu. Samo ako se dvije strane ne mogu dogovoriti, imenuje ih glavni direktor WTO. Sastoje se od tri (eventualno pet) stručnjaka iz različitih zemalja koji ispituju dokaze i odlučuju ko je u pravu, a ko u krivu te ne mogu primati instrukcije ni od jedne vlade. Izvještaj panela prosljeđuje se DSB koje može odbiti izvještaj samo konsenzusom. DSB nadzire primjenu odluka i preporuka i ovlašćeno je da odredi represaliju kada država ne postupa u skladu sa odlukom.

Dakle, DSB formira panel eksperata koji razmatraju slučaj te DSB prihvata ili odbija nalaz panela. Oficijelno govoreći, panel pomaže DSB da donese odluku ili preporuku, međutim, kako se izvještaj panela može odbaciti samo konsenzusom u okviru DSB, njegove zaključke je teško poništiti. Nalazi panela moraju se zasnivati na sporazumima na čije se kršenje implicira. Finalni izvještaj panela trebalo bi da bude dostavljen stranama u sporu unutar šest mjeseci, a u slučaju hitnoće, uključujući onu kada je u pitanju kvarljiva roba, krajnji rok je skraćen na tri mjeseca.

DSB detaljno propisuje kako paneli djeluju. Prva faza se provodi prije prvog ročišta i podrazumijeva da svaka strana u sporu iznosi u pisanom obliku svoj slučaj panelu. Zatim slijedi prvo saslušanje koje uključuje saslušanje tužioca, tuženog i onih ugovornica koje su objavile da imaju interes da u sporu i oni iznose svoj slučaj na prvom saslušanju pred panelom. Slijedi drugi sastanak panela na kojem strane u sporu pobijaju dokaze i podnose pisana izjašnjenja i iznose usmene argumente. Takođe, kada jedna strana inicira naučna ili druga tehnička pitanja, panel može konsultovati eksprete ili formirati stručnu ekspertsku grupu za reviziju koja će pripremiti stručni izvještaj. U fazi u kojoj se izrađuje prvi nacrt izvještaja panel dostavlja deskriptivne (faktičke i argumentovane) dijelove svog izvještaja objema stranama, ostavljajući im dvije sedmice za komentare, s tim da ovaj izvještaj ne uključuje nalaze i zaključke. U fazi u kojoj se izrađuje privremeni izvještaj podrazumijeva se da panel stranama dostavlja privremeni izvještaj, uključujući svoje nalaze i zaključke, ostavljajući im rok od sedam dana u kojem mogu da zatraže ponovno ispitivanje, s tim da ponovno ispitivanje ne smije trajati duže od dvije sedmice i za to vrijeme panel može održati dodatne sastanke sa stranama u sporu. Finalni izvještaj se dostavlja stranama u sporu i tri sedmice kasnije on se distribuira svim članicama WTO. Ako panel odluči da se spornom trgovinskom mjerom krši WTO sporazum ili obaveza, preporučuje mjeru za usklađivanje sa WTO pravilima i može predložiti način na koji to može biti postignuto. Izvještaj postaje odluka ili preporuka DSB u roku od 60 dana osim ako se konsenzusom ne odbije. Obje strane mogu izjaviti žalbu na izvještaj i ponekad to i čine.

2. ŽALBENO TIJELO

Žalbeno tijelo, kao integralni dio međunarodnog sistema ekonomskog upravljanja (Yang 2021, 104), ima sjedište u Ženevi i predstavlja stalno tijelo pri kojem svaku žalbu razmatraju tri člana stalnog sedmočlanog žalbenog tijela koje je formiralo DBS i koje na širokom nivou predstavlja čitav niz članova WTO. Mandat članova Žalbenog tijela iznosi četiri godine sa mogućnošću jednog ponovnog reizbora i to su pojedinci sa priznatom stručnošću u području prava, međunarodne trgovine i oblastima koje pokrivaju sporazumi te koji nisu povezani ni s jednom vladom. Oni ne smiju participirati u sporovima koji bi prouzrokovali neposredni ili posredni sukob interesa i moraju biti na raspolaganju čim se za to ukaže potreba. Odluka Žalbenog tijela može potvrditi, izmijeniti ili poništiti pravne nalaze i zaključke panela (Zwolankiewicz 2022, 33). Postupak po žalbi ne bi trebalo da traje duže od 60 dana, s apsolutnim maksimumom od 90 dana. Kada Tijelo smatra da ne može odlučiti u roku od 60 dana, o tome će informisati pisanim putem DSB, pri čemu je dužno navesti razloge za navedeno, kao i razloge ako to neće biti moguće učiniti ni po proteku maksimalnog roka od 90 dana. Navodi žalbe se odnose na pitanja koja su pokrivena izvještajem panela i na pitanja pravnog tumačenja koje je od strane panela razvijeno. Postupak pred Žalbenim tijelom odvija se u konsultaciji sa predsjedavajućim DSB i generalnim direktorom. Postupci koje provodi Žalbeno tijelo vode se u tajnosti, a izvještaji Tijela se pišu bez prisustva stranaka u sporu i u svjetlu pribavljenih informacija i datih izjava. Mišljenja izražena u izvještaju Žalbenog tijela od strane njegovih individualnih članova su anonimna. Žalbeno tijelo može podržati, modifikovati ili revidirati pravne nalaze i zaključke panela. Izvještaj Žalbenog tijela usvaja DSB i bezuslovno se prihvata od strane stranaka u sporu osim ako DSB konsenzusom odluči da ga ne usvoji u roku od 30 dana od prosljeđivanja članicama WTO. Što se tiče komunikacije sa panelom ili Žalbenom tijelom, komunikacije *ex parte* nema u pogledu pitanja koja se razmatraju od strane tih tijela. Pisani podnesci panelu ili Žalbenom tijelu tretiraju se povjerljivo, ali su dostupni stranama u sporu.

Mandat posljednje konfiguracije Žalbenog tijela istekao je 30. novembra 2020. godine te je ono praktično paralizovano zbog odbijanja Sjedinjenih Američkih Država (SAD) da imenuju člana tog tijela (Bronckers 2020, 221-244), čime je onemogućeno razmatranje žalbi na odluke WTO panela te se vrši marginalizacija WTO kao foruma i degradira se njen sistem rješavanja sporova (Vidigal 2023, 1-12). SAD su primarno odlučile da ne produže još jedan mandat svom dotadašnjem predstavniku u Žalbenom tijelu već su predložile drugog, zatim su se usprotivile produženju mandata korejskog člana i insistirale na njegovoj zamjeni te u konačnici odbile da pristanu na imenovanje bilo kog člana Žalbenog tijela kojem je istekao mandat. Ovakvo djelovanje temeljeno je na tvrdnjama da je tijelo neoperativno, a kao ključni razlog za to navođena je okolnost da unutar DSB nema balansa između korišćenja „parničnog sistema" i korištenja poravnanja kao opcije, premda konsultacije koje su u okviru DSB predviđene primarno treba da djeluju *in favorem* poravnanja. Sam sistem rješavanja sporova, prema mišljenju SAD-a, trebalo bi da ojača i olakša funkcionisanje drugih aspekata WTO, pregovaračke funkcije, kao i funkcije nadzora u WTO, umjesto da ih „guši". Prema ovom argumentu, manje je vjerovatno da će vlade ozbiljno pregovarati ako misle da mogu postići svoje ciljeve kroz spor koji rezultira povoljnim tumačenjem postojećih WTO odredbi. Međutim, teško da se svi neuspjesi pregovora mogu pripisati navedenom argumentu jer je riječ o globalnoj organizaciji koja broji 164 člana i, samim tim, ima širok spektar različitih pogleda, što otežava postizanje konsenzusa.

3. MULTILATERALNI PRIVREMENI ŽALBENI ARBITRAŽNI ARANŽMAN

Kao odgovor na problem nefunkcionisanja Žalbenog tijela, grupa članica WTO razvila je Multilateralni privremeni žalbeni arbitražni aranžman kao privremeni mehanizam za očuvanje žalbene funkcije u okviru WTO za sporove među učesnicima tog aranžmana. Ovaj privremeni mehanizam, koji se sastoji od deset arbitara, ima svoje ishodište u nacrtu teksta koji je upravo Evropska unija distribuirala u maju 2019. godine, kada je postalo jasno da je malo vjerovatno da će članice svjetske organizacije spriječiti blokiranje Žalbenog tijela. Ovaj privremeni mehanizam koji počiva na članu 24 DSU omogućava članicama svjetske organizacije da se saglase da sporove rješavaju arbitražom kroz fleksibilnu proceduru koja je u prošlosti korišćena veoma rijetko kako bi se stvorili uslovi koji omogućavaju arbitražnom vijeću da obavlja funkciju slično onoj koju je tradicionalno obavljalo Žalbeno tijelo. Privremeni mehanizam omogućava, dakle, da se žalbena funkcija u okviru svjetske organizacije i dalje vrši, doduše u modifikovanom obliku, dok Žalbeno

tijelo ponovo ne profunkcioniše. Evropska unija je stala na poziciju da nema namjeru da afirmiše zamjenu Žalbenog tijela te da čim ono bude u svom punom kapacitetu, žalba treba da mu se podnose. U privremenom mehanizmu učestvuje značajan dio članica WTO: Australija, Benin, Brazil, Crna Gora, Kanada, Čile, Kolumbija, Kostarika, Evropska unija, Gvatemala, Hong Kong, Kina, Island, Makao, Meksiko, Novi Zeland, Norveška, Pakistan, Singapur, Švajcarska, Ukrajina, Peru i Urugvaj, a od 2020. godine i Ekvador i Nikaragva. Japan se MPIA pridružio 10. marta 2023. godine i trenutno u ovom mehanizmu učestvuje 26 država. Međutim, većina članica WTO (uključujući SAD i Indiju) još uvijek nije pristala na učešće.
U julu 2022. godine WTO je donijela arbitražnu odluku na osnovu člana 25 DSU na žalbu na izvještaj panela u slučaju Turkey-Pharmaceuticals i to je bila prva upotreba takvog arbitražnog postupka. Budući da Turska nije pristupila MPIA, ovdje je riječ o *ad hoc* ugovoru između Evropske unije i Turske, a procedure iz tog ugovora su veoma slične onima iz MPIA, što je značajno jer pokazuje da se alternativni mehanizam može uspješno koristiti za ispunjavanje funkcije žalbenog preispitivanja te se prema pojedinim autorima (Ya Qin 2022, 415-430) ova inovativna upotreba arbitraže iz člana 25 može predložiti kao dugoročno rješenje u reformi WTO za rješavanje sporova. U decembru iste godine arbitri su presudili u korist Evropske unije u sporu koji je ova organizacija vodila protiv Kolumbije radi toga što je ova država uvela antidampinške carine na smrznuti krompir iz Belgije, Njemačke i Holandije. Bio je to prvi slučaj izjavljivanja žalbe u okviru MPIA. U svakom slučaju, prerano je predviđati tok razvoja žalbenog arbitražnog aranžmana samo na osnovu njegove prve upotrebe, ali će svakako rane prakse odrediti radnu matricu u skladu sa kojom će se djelovati.

4. POGLED IZ BRISELA

Bliskog saradnika za svoje regulatorno i materijalno bogaćenje Evropska unija nalazi u trgovinskoj politici koju ta međunarodna organizacija u konitnuitetu razvija proteklih sedam decenija. Trgovinska politika Unije je na međunarodnoj ravni prilično integrisana i ona je kao najprominentnija i najvažnija čvrsto ukorijenjena u svaku njenu poru (Dragišić 2022, 103-126).
Evropska unija posredstvom *soft law* plasira različite prijedloge za reformu WTO, pridružujući se viđenjima dijela doktrine, koji smatra da SAD, pored toga što prepoznaju i ukazuju na poteškoće u djelovanju sistema za rješavanje sporova u okviru WTO, treba da izađu sa prijedlozima za rješavanje nastale krize, odnosno prijedlozima za reformu WTO. Tako se u prilogu Komunikacije Komisije Evropskom parlamentu, Savjetu, Evropskom ekonomskom i socijalnom komitetu i Komitetu regiona od 18. februara 2021. godine nalazi i Prijedlog reforme WTO prema održivom i efikasnom multilateralnom trgovinskom sistemu, u kojem se navodi da se otkad je uspostavljen multilateralni trgovinski sistem, svjetska trgovina povećala 300 puta te danas čini više od 60% svjetskog BDP-a i podrška je zapošljavanju, rastu i investicijama širom svijeta. Evropska organizacija dakle u svojim dokumentima ističe da je WTO doprinio i globalnom održivom razvoju i da je ekonomska otvorenost koju jamči WTO olakšala integraciju mnogih zemalja u razvoju u svjetsku ekonomiju, čime je stotine miliona ljudi izvučeno iz siromaštva te su smanjene nejednakosti među zemljama. Međutim, prema ocjeni Komisije, aktuelna kriza utiče na sve tri funkcije WTO: pregovorima nije postignuta modernizacija pravila, sistem za rješavanje sporova se vratio na situaciju iz razdoblja GATT, a nadzor nad trgovinskim politikama nije efikasan. Ipak, kada je riječ o Žalbenom tijelu, stiče se utisak da evropska organizacija ne podržava kritike SAD-a i da, čak, izražava svojevrsnu indignaciju u vezi sa njima.
Sa jedne strane evropska organizacija vjeruje i podržava multilateralizam (De Ville 2014, 269), dok se sa druge strane ne može prenebregnuti činjenica da je sporost pregovora koji su se odvijali u Dohi pod okriljem WTO otvorila Evropskoj uniji prostor da svoju međunarodnu trgovinsku strategiju preusmjeri na bilateralne ugovore o slobodnoj trgovini (Svoboda 2019, 189-214), iako pojedini autori (Athukorala 2020, 13-20) smatraju da neuspjeh i sporost u pregovaranju pod okriljem WTO ne daju valjane argumente za davanje prioriteta ugovorima o slobodnoj trgovini

koje na bilateralnoj ravni zaključuje evropska organizacija jer su oni u zadnje tri decenije rukovođeni uglavnom neekonomskim faktorima. Međutim, institucionalne promjene koje su nastupile aktuelnom primjenom Ugovora iz Lisabona, dodatno su podstakle iniciranje bilateralnih ugovora različitih vrsta i dominacije, koji predstavljaju „drugo najbolje rješenje", nakon prilično kontroverzne afirmacije multilateralnog djelovanja u sferi međunarodne trgovine (Breuss 2022, 653-674). Riječ je o ugovorima koji prevazilaze simplificirano uklanjanje uvoznih carina i drugih trgovinskih prepreka i obuhvataju mjere koje nisu povezane samo sa trgovinom. Više je nego jasno da je opšta poveznica sa međunarodnim trgovinskim djelovanjem uključivanje Unije u različite ugovore o slobodnoj trgovini u svrhu ostvarivanja jasne ekonomske veze ovaploćene u stvarnom povećanju pristupa tržištu, pri čemu Unija, barem formalno, ne odustaje od mogućnosti postizanja dogovora na multilateralnom nivou – u WTO. Stoga se čini iskorak u međunarodnom trgovinskom pravu u skladu sa kojim se ugovori o slobodnoj trgovini smatraju sredstvom jačanja provedbe pravila međunarodne trgovine. Naime, Komisija stoji na poziciji da su bilateralni ugovori u službi pružanja podrške povratku WTO u središte globalne trgovine.

ZAKLJUČAK

WTO je danas suočena sa najvećom krizom od svog postojanja koja je, između ostalog, indukovana određenim promišljanjima o tome da sistem rješavanja sporova koji se primjenjuje u toj svjetskoj organizaciji nije dovoljno efikasan te da se suviše bazira na parničnom sistemu, umjesto da se u fokus stavi poravnanje kao najbolja opcija. Međutim, umjesto pronalaženja najboljeg mogućeg rješenja za postizanje efikasnijeg rezultata u rješavanju sporova, izvršena je totalna blokada rada Žalbenog tijela, što je uslovilo da dio članica WTO posegne za alternativom koju predviđaju WTO regule *i.e.* da pristane da se na njihove sporove primjenjuje Multilateralni privremeni žalbeni arbitražni aranžman. U doktrini i praksi su podijeljena mišljenja o tome da li je privremeni mehanizam uistinu privremeni ili je, ipak, riječ o bazi na koju će se nadograditi određena rješenja koja će u potpunosti zamijeniti rješenja u skladu sa kojima je funkcionisalo Žalbeno tijelo. U svakom slučaju, kako stvari trenutno stoje, privremeni žalbeni arbitražni aranžman je u funkciji očuvanja žalbene funkcije u okviru WTO za sporove među učesnicima tog aranžmana.
Na međunarodnoj ravni sve više se afirmiše kalvinistički pristup prema bilateralnim ugovorima o slobodnoj trgovini koje Evropska unija zaključuje sa trećim zemljama, u smislu da ih evropska organizacija favorizuje. Logično je postaviti pitanje opravdanja pomenute afirmacije, u situaciji kada postoji multilateralni trgovinski sistem koji djeluje pod okriljem WTO, međutim u poređenju sa multilateralnim trgovinskim pregovorima, bilateralne pregovore je mnogo lakše voditi i ugovori koji iz njih proizađu mogu imati dejstvo širenja slobodne trgovine izvan onoga što se trenutno može dogovoriti u multilateralnom trgovinskom sistemu. Sve navedeno može da navede na zaključak da, bez obzira na *soft law* instrumente kroz koje se pruža podrška nastavku funkcionisanja WTO u punom kapacitetu te poziva na njenu reformu, institucije Evropske unije navedenu podršku ipak primarno pruža samo deklarativno. U skali svih potreba za reformom WTO na koju ukazuju i praksa i doktrina, čini se da je najvažnija ona koja je usmjerena na što hitniju reformu sistema rješavanja sporova unutar ove svjetske organizacije.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 03/05/2023
The paper accepted: 05/06/2023

UDK 340.142:342.565.2(4-672EU)
DOI 10.7251/POS2330177T
COBISS.RS-ID 138852609
Review

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(NON)FUNCTIONING OF THE WTO APPELLATE BODY

Abstract: *This paper, by using the structural-functional, comparative, and cause and effect analyses, indicating the facticity in the degree in which it is necessary, explores the status of the system of dispute settlement within the World Trade Organization (WTO), paying particular attention to the blockade in which the Appellate Body has found itself as a part of that system. The function of the Multi-Party Interim Appeal Arbitration Arrangement (MPIA) is explored in order to understand whether the Arrangement desires to take over the role of the Appellate Body "through the back door", with certain refinements. A review is given of the viewpoint of the European Union in terms of the status of the dispute settlement system within the WTO and it is indicated that 'new generation' international free trade agreements that the European organisation concludes with third countries are being more and more affirmed after the failed negotiations from Doha. At the end of the analysis, the authors provide their concluding remarks.*

Keywords: *WTO, European Union, Appellate Body, MPIA, free trade*

JEL classification: *K33, K41*

INTRODUCTION

The first decades of the 20th century were characterised by countries entering trade arrangements in order to achieve organisation directed towards facilitating trade relations by regulating them at the multilateral level, primarily by adopting the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade in 1947 (GATT), which truly inaugurated the system of internationally recognised trade rules. They are international rules that provide equal conditions for all contracting parties, primarily through reduced tariffs and removal of other barriers and elimination of discriminatory treatment in international trade. International trade developed and with time, next to the exchange of goods, it also began to cover the exchange of services so the GATT was overcome and transformed into the WTO, established after the Uruguay Round of trade negotiations in 1995, with trade negotiations previously integrated into its legal framework, such as the GATT 1994 itself, which spawned from the revision of GATT 1947, then the Agreement on Agriculture, Agreement on Textiles and Clothing, and other general agreements, among which General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), and Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) were crucial. Following the negotiations on trade facilitation launched within the Doha Development Agenda and Ministerial Conference held in Bali in 2013, and more than two decades after the establishment of the WTO, in February 2017, after the ratification by Chad, Jordan, Oman, and Rwanda, thus reaching the determined threshold of 110 members (two-thirds of contracting parties), the Trade Facilitation Agreement (TFA) entered into force, which is considered as the most important trade agreement of this world organisation. It is expected that the TFA will significantly simplify and modernize customs procedures at the global level and thus lead to increased inclusion of developing countries in global value chains. TFA was followed by the Ministerial Conference held in 2022 in Geneva, where the agreement on fisheries subsidies and amendments of TRIPS in terms of COVID-19 vaccines was reached, but also the need for a basic reform of the WTO in areas such as trade and health, energy, e-commerce, investments and state aid was indicated. As the basic element of the trade system contributing within the WTO to the stability of the economy at the global level, primarily ensuring the reduction of applying unilateral protective measures that countries had resorted to and guaranteeing the equality between stronger and weaker contracting parties, the Dispute Settlement Body (DSB) was first inaugurated and then consolidated.

Below, within separate headings, by using the structural-functional, comparative, and cause and effect analyses, the way of settling disputes in the WTO is explored, where particular attention is paid to the issue of the current status of the Appellate Body found in 1995 under Article 17 of the Dispute Settlement Understanding (DSU), and the function of the alternative mechanism i.e. the Multi-Party Interim Appeal Arbitration Arrangement (MPIA).

1. WTO DISPUTE SETTLEMENT BODY

A multilateral dispute settlement system functions within the WTO because the contracting parties have committed to refrain from taking unilateral measures and respect agreed procedures in case of disputes if a contracting party adopts a trade policy measure or takes actions which one or more contracting parties deem as a violation of the agreement or failure to meet obligations taken within the WTO, where a certain group of countries may declare interest in the dispute and enjoy certain rights.

The dispute settlement procedure was also foreseen by the anthological GATT, but back then it was not characterised by precise deadlines, it was easier to block decisions, procedures were usually long without reached solutions, and rulings were adopted by consensus. It was followed by the introduction of a more structured procedure as a consequence of the agreement reached at the Uruguay Round, in the sense that it determined more precisely the content of the stages of the procedure and introduced greater discipline in terms of deadlines for dispute settlement (it should not take longer than one year for the first ruling, i.e. no longer than 15 months in case of appeals, and in case of perishable goods it is accelerated as much as possible), still with flexible deadlines set in different stages of the procedure and favouring urgent settlement as the most efficient outcome of every dispute. The Uruguay Round made it impossible for the country losing a dispute to block the adoption of a ruling as they are now automatically adopted unless there is a consensus to reject it. However, both then and now, although much of the procedure resembles a court or tribunal, it is preferable to find a solution under an agreement, where the first stage of the procedure is consultations between the governments concerned, and even when the case has progressed to other stages, consultation and mediation are still possible.

Since 1995, according to the data from the WTO's official website, 616 disputes have been submitted to this organisation for resolution and 350 rulings have been made, so it is considered that the WTO has one of the most active international mechanisms for settling disputes in the world that covers all multilateral trade agreements and whose basis are the provisions of Articles XXII and XXIII of the GATT 1994 supplemented by subsequently formulated rules and procedures agreed between the contracting parties.

The first stage of the dispute settlement procedure includes one contracting party submitting to the other a request for consultations on a specific subject that needs to start within 30 days from the date of sending the request, and last 60 days in total because the countries in the dispute must talk to see if they can settle a mutual disagreement, and if that is not possible, they can ask the Director-General of the WTO to mediate or try to help in some other way. Essentially, if a dispute is not solved through consultation, the second stage of the procedure is initiated by a contracting party (the complaining country) addressing the DSB (Dispute Settlement Body) to create a panel, usually consisting of three independent experts, to try and solve the problem. The contracting parties, as noted, can at any time voluntarily use other methods of dispute settlement, including mediation, conciliation and good offices. The second stage lasts up to 45 days for a panel to be appointed, plus six months for the panel to make a conclusion. The responding party can block the creation of a panel once, but when the DSB meets the second time it can no longer be blocked unless a consensus is reached on the matter. Essentially, panels act as a court, the only difference being that panellists are usually chosen after consulting the parties to the dispute. Only if two parties cannot reach an agreement, they are appointed by the Director-General of the WTO. They consist of three (possibly five) experts from different countries that examine evidence and decide who is right and who is wrong, and they cannot be instructed by any government. Panel reports are passed to the DSB which can refuse a report only by a consensus. The DSB supervises the application of rulings and recommendations and it is authorised to determine reprisals when a state does not act in accordance with a ruling.

Therefore, the DSB creates a panel of experts that considers the case, and the DSB accepts or refuses the findings of the panel. Officially speaking, the panel helps the DSB to make rulings or recommendations, but as a panel report can be refused only by consensus within the DSB, its conclusions are hard to overturn. The findings of panels must be based on agreements whose violation is implicated. The final report of a panel should be delivered to the parties in the dispute within six months, and in case of urgency, including those concerning perishable goods, the final deadline is shortened to three months. The DSB prescribes in detail how panels work. The first stage is implemented before the first hearing implying that each side in the dispute presents its case in writing to the panel. It is followed by the first hearing meaning that the complaining country, the responding country, and those countries that have announced they have an interest in the dispute, make their case at the panel's first hearing. It is then followed by the second meeting of the panel where the parties in the dispute refute the evidence and submit written rebuttals and present oral arguments. Also, when one party initiates scientific or other technical issues, the panel may consult experts or establish an expert review group to prepare an expert report. In the stage in which the first draft of the report is prepared, the panel submits the descriptive (factual and argument) sections of its report to the two sides, giving them two weeks to comment, but this report does not include findings and conclusions. In the stage in which an interim report is drafted, the panel submits it to the parties, including its findings and conclusions, giving them one week to ask for a review, but the review cannot last longer than two weeks, and in that time the panel may have additional meetings with the parties. The final report is submitted to the parties in the dispute and three weeks later, it is distributed to all the members of the WTO. If the panel decides that the disputed trade measure does break a WTO agreement or an obligation, it recommends the measure to conform to WTO rules and may suggest how it could be done. The report becomes a DBS ruling or recommendation within 60 days unless rejected by a consensus. Both sides can appeal the report, and in some cases, they do.

2. APPELLATE BODY

The Appellate Body, as an integral part of the international system of economic management (Yang 2021, 104), has a seat in Geneva and it is a permanent body where each appeal is considered by three members of the seven-member appeal body created by the DBS and broadly representing a whole range of WTO members. The members of the Appellate Body have a mandate of four years and can be re-appointed once, and they are individuals with recognised authority, with demonstrated expertise in law, international trade, and the subject matter of the covered agreements generally, and are not affiliated with any government. They cannot participate in disputes that would cause a direct or indirect conflict of interest and must be available whenever needed. Decisions of the Appellate Body can uphold, modify or reverse legal findings and conclusions of the panel (Zwolankiewicz 2022, 33). The appeal procedure should not last longer than 60 days, with an absolute maximum of 90 days. When the Body considers that it cannot provide its report within 60 days, it informs the DSB in writing, whereby it is obliged to note the reasons for it as well as the reasons for why it will not be possible to do so even after the maximum of 90 days. An appeal refers to issues covered in the panel report and legal interpretations developed by the panel. The procedure before the Appellate Body happens in consultation with the Chairman of the DSB and Director-General. Proceedings of the Appellate Body are confidential, and reports of the Body are drafted without the presence of the parties to the dispute and in the light of obtained information and given statements. Opinions expressed in the Appellate Body report by its individual members are anonymous. An Appellate Body report is adopted by the DSB and unconditionally accepted by the parties to the dispute unless the DSB decides by a consensus not to adopt it within 30 days following its circulation to the Members of the WTO. When it comes to communication with the panel or Appellate Body, there is no *ex parte* communication concerning matters under consideration by those bodies. Written submissions to the panel or the Appellate Body are treated as confidential but are made available to the parties in the dispute.

The mandate of the last configuration of the Appellate Body expired on 30 November 2020, and it has been practically paralysed because the United States of America (US) refused to appoint a member of the body (Bronckers 2020, 221-244), thus making the consideration of appeals against rulings of the WTO panels impossible, and marginalising the WTO as a forum and degrading its dispute settlement system (Vidigal 2023, 1-12). The US has primarily decided not to re-appoint its previous representative in the Appellate Body but proposed a new one, then opposed to the re-appointment of the Korean member and insisted on replacing them, and finally refused to accept the re-appointment of any member of the Appellate Body whose mandate had terminated. Such actions are based on claims that the body is non-operational and as the key reason it is stated that within the DSB there is no balance between using the "litigation system" and using settlement as an option, even though consultations foreseen within the DSB should primarily act *in favorem* of settlements. The dispute settlement system itself, according to the US, should strengthen and facilitate the functioning of other aspects of the WTO, the negotiation function, as well as the monitoring function in the WTO, instead of "stifling" them. According to this argument, it is less likely that the governments will negotiate seriously if they believe they can achieve their objectives through a dispute resulting in a favourable interpretation of the existing WTO provisions. However, not all failed negotiations can be blamed on this argument because it is a global organisation with 164 members, so it has a wide spectrum of different points of view, which makes reaching a consensus more difficult.

3. MULTI-PARTY INTERIM APPEAL ARBITRATION ARRANGEMENT

As a response to the problem of the non-functioning of the Appellate Body, a group of WTO members has developed the Multi-Party Interim Appeal Arbitration Arrangement as a temporary mechanism for preserving the appeal function within the WTO for disputes between the participants to the Arrangement. This interim mechanism, consisting of ten arbitrators, has its starting point in the draft text distributed by the European Union itself in May 2019, when it became clear that it was not very likely that the members of the global organisation would prevent the blockade of the Appellate Body. This interim mechanism that is based on Article 24 of the Dispute Settlement Understanding (DSU) enables the members of the global organisation to agree to settle disputes by arbitration through a flexible procedure that in the past was used very rarely to create conditions that would enable the arbitration panel to perform the function similar to the one performed by the Appellate Body. So, the interim mechanism enables the appeal function within the world organisation, though in a modified form, until the Appellate Body starts functioning again. The European Union has taken the position that it has no intention of affirming the replacement of the Appellate Body and that appeals should be submitted to it as soon as it becomes fully operational. A significant number of WTO members participate in the interim mechanism: Australia, Benin, Brazil, Montenegro, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, European Union, Guatemala, Hong Kong, China, Iceland, Macao, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Singapore, Switzerland, Ukraine, Peru and Uruguay, and since 2020 Ecuador and Nicaragua. Japan joined the MPIA on March 10, 2023, and currently 26 countries participate in this mechanism. However, the majority of the WTO members (including the US and India) have not yet agreed to participate.

In July 2022 the WTO issued the arbitration award under Article 25 of the DSU on the appeal from the panel report in the case Turkey-Pharmaceuticals, and it was the first time that such an arbitration procedure was used. Since Turkey has not acceded to the MPIA, it is an *ad hoc* agreement between the European Union and Turkey, and the procedures of that agreement are very similar to those of the MPIA. The significance of this appeal arbitration procedures therefore goes far beyond the specific case, which is important as it shows that the alternative mechanism for dispute settlement can be used successfully for meeting the function of appellate review, and according to some authors (Ya Quin 2022, 415-430), this innovative use of arbitration from Article 25 can be proposed as a long-term solution in the reform of the WTO for dispute settlement. In December of the same year, the arbitrators ruled in favour of the European Union in the dispute that this organization led against Columbia due to the fact that this country introduced anti-damping tariffs on frozen potatoes from Belgium, Germany and Holland. It was the first case of filing an appeal under the MPIA. For sure, it is too early to predict the course of development of the appellate arbitration arrangement only on the basis of its first use, but certainly the early practices will largely determine the working matrix in accordance with which it will act.

4. VIEW FROM BRUSSELS

The European Union finds a close associate for their regulatory and material enrichment in the trade policy, which this international organisation has been continuously developing for the past seven decades. The Union's trade policy has been pretty integrated at the international level and it has been deeply rooted into its every pore as the most prominent and important one (Dragišić 2022, 103-126). The European Union uses soft law to present different proposals for the WTO's reform, joining the viewpoints of a part of the doctrine believing that the US, along with recognising and indicating the difficulties in the functioning of the dispute settlement system within the WTO, should also step forward with suggestions for resolving the current crisis, i.e. proposals for reforming the WTO. In that sense the Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions of 18 February 2021 is annexed by the Proposal for Reforming the WTO: Towards a sustainable and effective multilateral trading system, in which it is stated that since the foundation of the multilateral trading system, world trade has expanded 300-fold, and today makes up more than 60% of global GDP, supporting jobs, growth and investment around the world. The European organisation points out in its documents that the WTO has also contributed to global sustainable development and that the economic openness that the WTO guarantees has helped integrate many developing countries into the world economy, lifting hundreds of millions of people out of poverty and decreasing inequalities between countries. However, according to the Commission's findings, the current crisis affects all three functions of the WTO: negotiations have failed to modernise the rules, the dispute settlement system has reverted to the days of the GATT, and the monitoring of trade policies is ineffective. Nevertheless, on a general level, when it comes to the Appellate Body, one gets the impression that the European organization does not support the criticisms of the USA and that it even expresses a kind of indignation about them.

On one hand, the European organisation believes in and supports multilateralism (De Ville 2014, 269), while on the other hand, it cannot be ignored that the slowness of negotiations that took place in Doha under the auspices of the WTO created a space for the European Union to redirect its international trade strategy to bilateral free trade agreements (Svoboda 2019, 189-214), even though certain authors (Athukorala 2020, 13-20) believe that the failure and slowness in negotiations under the auspices of the WTO do not make a solid argument for prioritising free trade agreements concluded by the European organisation at the bilateral level, because in the past three decades, they have been guided mostly by non-economic factors. However, institutional changes that occurred under the current application of the Lisbon Treaty have additionally encouraged the initiation of bilateral agreements of different type and domination, representing "the second best solution", after a quite controversial affirmation of multilateral activities in the international trade sphere (Breuss 2022, 653-674). We are talking about agreements that go beyond the simplified removal of import tariffs and other trade barriers and include measures that are not related solely to trade. It is more than clear that the Union's inclusion in different free trade agreements to achieve a clear economic relationship embodied in a real increase of market access is the general link with the international trade actions, where the Union, at least formally, does not give up on the possibility of reaching a multilateral agreement – in the WTO. Therefore, a step forward is made in the international trade law under which free trade agreements are considered a means for strengthening the implementation of international trade rules. Namely, the Commission's position is that bilateral agreements serve to support the return of the WTO to the centre of global trade.

CONCLUSION

Today, the WTO faces the biggest crisis since its establishment, which, *inter alia*, is induced by certain considerations that the dispute settlement system applied in this global organisation is not efficient enough and that it relies too much on the litigation system instead of focusing on settlement as the best option. However, instead of finding the best possible solution for achieving more efficient results in dispute settlement, the work of the Appellate Body has been blocked completely, which caused some of the members of the WTO to reach for an alternative foreseen by the WTO regulations, i.e. to agree to have Multi-Party Interim Appeal Arbitration Arrangement applied to their disputes. In the doctrine and practice, opinions are divided on whether the temporary mechanism is truly temporary or it is a basis for building certain solutions that will completely replace the solutions according to which the Appellate Body functions. In any case, the way things are, the Interim Appeal Arbitration Arrangement serves to preserve the appellate function within the WTO for disputes between the participants of the Arrangement.

At the international level, the Calvinist approach towards bilateral free trade agreements concluded by the European Union with third countries is increasingly being affirmed, in the sense that the European organisation favours them. It is logical to pose the question of justifying such affirmation, in the situation in which the multilateral trade system exists and acts under the auspices of the WTO, however, in comparison to multilateral trade negotiations, bilateral negotiations are much easier to conduct, and agreements arising from them can have the effect of expanding free trade beyond what can be currently agreed in the multilateral trade system. It can all lead to the conclusion that, regardless of the soft law instruments used to support the continuation of the functioning of the WTO in its full capacity and call for its reform, institutions of the European Union primarily provide such support only declaratively. In the scale of all the needs for the WTO's reform to which both practice and doctrine indicate, it seems that the most important is the one directed towards the most urgent reform of the dispute settlement system within this global organisation.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
Rad primljen: 13.04.2023.
Rad odobren: 19.04.2023.

UDK 339.727.22:336.727.22]:654.17/.19
DOI 10.7251/POS2330185S
COBISS.RS-ID 138850305
Pregledni rad

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ULOGA GLASNOGOVORNIKA SIGURNOSNIH AGENCIJA U KREIRANJU AMBIJENTA ZA INVESTIRANJE

Rezime: *Jedan od glavnih temelja ekonomskog razvoja predstavljaju investicije. Prilikom odluke o investiranju često se posmatra više faktora, ali jedan od najvažnijih je njihova sigurnost. Koliko je neka investicija sigurna zavisi od sigurnosne situacije u toj zemlji. Mnogo je informacija koji mogu dati staistički podaci te na taj način procijeniti koliko je određena zemlja sigurna za investiranje. Iako statistka ponekad može dovesti u zabludu, moć medija ima veliki utjecaj u kreiranju sigurnosnog ambijenta. Osnovni pokazatelji takvih narativa su svakako sigurnosne agencije i njihove aktivnosti, odnosno njihovi pokazatelji o sigurnosnoj situaciji u određenoj zemlji, a glavni reprezenti i kreatori, glasnongovornici ili službenici za informisanje takvih agencija. Njihova uloga je unikatna i veoma jedinstvena, jer imaju za cilj da brendiraju i prodaju svoj proizvod, a on je u ovoj specifičnoj situaciji sigurnost. U zemljama u razvoju, post-konfliktnim zemljama, javna prezentacija sigurnosti svakako ima veliki značaj kod lokalnog stanovništva, ali i potencijalnim investitorima. Uloga glasnogovornika sigurnosnih agencija je od velikog značaja zbog speficičnosti posla koji obavljaju, a koji se ne ogleda u formalnoj promociji proizvoda, nego ima krucijalni značaj u kreiranju pozitivnog imidža države i sigurnog ambijenta za investiranje.*

Ključne riječi: *glasnogovornik, sigurnost, investicije, informisanje, mediji*

JEL klasifikacija: *E2, E29, F5, F52*

UVOD

Investicije predstavljaju osnovu za razvijanje tržišta i pokretanje novih radnih mjesta. One su jedan od glavnih principa na kojima se zasniva ekonomija pojedinih zemalja, ali i političke kampanje zemalja u razvoju, u čijim su idejama investitori najpoželjniji saradnici. Svako tržište ima različitu vrstu rizika, na koju su investitori spremni, posebno ako se radi o investiranju u strano tržište, čije su karakteristike rizične za svaki oblik poslovanja. Zemlje koje su podložne terorizmu i u kojima se aktivnosti vezane za njega dešavaju, one koje imaju veću stopu kriminala, kao i one u kojima su česte koruptivne i kriminalne radnje svakako odbijaju investitore, međutim investitori mogu odabrati određenu regiju ili mikrolokaciju za svoje poslovanje - investiranje. Statistički podaci su nerijetko skup brojeva koji ne otkrivaju mnogo, ali svakodnevno javno informisanje o sigurnosnim aspektima u pojedinoj državi može dati okvire na kojima će se između ostalog zasnivati investiciono ulaganje. Ukoliko mediji neprestano objavljuju informacije o broju kriminalnih aktivnosti, sigurno je da će to investitore kratkoročno odbiti od ulaganja, međutim, ukoliko se govori o poduzetim aktivnostima na njihovoj prevenciji, što je temelj za izrazito stabilnu sigurnosnu situaciju, onda kao takve pogoduju investitorima. Sigurnosne agencije i njihovi glasnogovornici su glavni proaktivni faktor koji ima mogućnost za svakodnevno kreiranje javnog mnenja, govoreći o pozitivnim aspektima i sigurnosnoj situaciji, pri tome vodeći računa o tačnosti informacija i njihovom širem kontekstu. Odnos sigurnosnih agencija prema javnosti kreira imidž i globalnu sigurnosnu sliku neke države, a ulogu njene osnovne prezentacije ima upravo glasnogovornik – službenik za odnose s javnošću.

1. SIGURNOSNE AGENCIJE I MEDIJI – MEĐUSOBNA INTERAKCIJA

Pojam komunikacija je latinskog porijekla (lat. communicare) što se odnosi na nešto što je kreirano kao opšte. Razmjena informacija, ideja i osjećaja između ljudi putem verbalnih i neverbalnih sredstava u skladu s društvenim okolnostima može se jednostavno opisati kao komunikacija (Hymes 1972). Glavni izvor informacija su mediji, a njihovi izvještaji utiču na oblikovanje javnog mnenja. Stalna interakcija sigurnosnih agencija sa medijima te uspostavljanje kvalitetne saradnje ima za cilj stvaranje sigurnog okruženja, a na koncu i uspostavu kvalitetnog odnosa na relaciji sigurnosne agencije – mediji – građani.

Sigurnosne agencije predstavljaju nepresušan izvor informacija za savremene medije, a glavni princip na kojem se zasniva njihovo javno publikovanje je redovno i tačno informisanje. Iako se na sigurnosne institucije veoma često posmatra sa predsrasudama, da su zatvorene ili da daju parcijalne ili dvosmislene informacije, odnosno da ih ne daju nikako, dvosmjerna komunikacija i transparentan pristup otvara mogućnost za izgradnju povjerenja te unapređenju imidža i ugleda sigurnosnih agencija.

Načini komunikacije sigurnosnih agencija obično predstavljaju klasične oblike PR aktivnosti u vidu saopštenja za javnost, konferencija za medije, bilo da se radi o redovnim (periodične konferencije) ili vanrednim (provođenje akcija, kampanje, vanredne situacije i sl.) konferencijama, odgovaranje na upite novinara, davanje izjava za radio i televiziju te gostovanja u njihovim programima. Rukovodioci sigurnosnih agencija i njihovi glasnogovornici su osobe sa ovlašćenjima za javne istupe, uz iznimku i drugih za koje rukovodilac daje saglasnost. Svaki javni nastup mora da bude pripremljen obiljem informacija o temi o kojoj se govori, govoreći o činjeničnom stanju te da na svako pitanje ima jasan odgovor bez iskazivanja ličnog stava. Uspjeh odnosa s javnošću u velikoj mjeri zavisi od balansa između onoga što je obavezujuće i mogućnosti da se postigne određena fleksibilnost kada se govori o različitim grupama odnosno recepijentima takvih informacija (Dozier i Lauzen 2000).

Pitanja koja su od interesa javnosti, ali bi njihovim javnim iznošenjem mogla da se prouzroči šteta ili uznemirenost javnosti, predstavnik sigurnosne agencije koji je ovlašćen da javno govori, nije dužan da obrazlaže, niti da na isto ponudi bilo kakav odgovor. Često je tanka nit između projekcije informacije od javnog interesa i toga što bi takvo otkrivanje moglo negativno prouzročiti. Sigurnosne agencije su dužne sprovoditi zakone koji se tiču informisanja javnosti, prije svega zakone koji se tiču slobode pristupa informacijama te postupati u skladu sa evropskim zakonodavnim okvirima kada je u pitanju saradnja sa medijima, kao i osnovne medijske slobode.

Ono što je u novinarskom diskursu bila definicija da nije vijest kada pas ujede čovjeka, nego obratno u savremenom novinarstvu to je postao obrazac ponašanja. Medijsku pažnju najviše zaokupljaju nesreće, skandali, negativne vijesti, jer su prema svim istraživanjima najčitaniji, nagledaniji i najslušaniji upravo oni čiji se bazični koncept na tome zasniva ili sa fokusom na samo takve sadržaje. Imajući u vidu takve činjenice, fokus majorizacije ne bi trebao da bude na novinarima, za koje se često kaže da su skloni takvim vijestima, nego je potrebno znati ko su recepijenti takvih informacija.

Mediji imaju veliki značaj u odnosima s javnošću, njihovo pozicinoranje je neupitno, jer su put do ciljane grupe, a imaju neizmjerljvu moć brzine prenosa informacija. ,,Paralelno s promjenama u medijskom i uopšteno komunikacijskom okruženju koje su nastupile kao posljedica digitalizacije, fokus naučnika se usmjerava prema ulozi tehnologije u političkim procesima" (Grbeša i Skoko i Bebić 2022, 246).

Praktično-kritički pristup bi morao da omogućava progresivnost u sveukupnom društvenom postojanju, zbog izuzetne važnosti odnosa s javnošću u društvenoj paradigmi (Spicer 2000; Woodward 2006).

Odnosi s medijima su, kao i novinarstvo, djelatnost koju ljudi obavljaju najčešće profesionalno za neko preduzeće ili za neku instituciju, organizaciju, pokret, pojedinca pa čak i za ideju. Njihov posao obuhvata širok spektar aktivnosti, uključujući praćenje i analiziranje medijskih sadržaja te procjenu njihovog uticaja na relevantne grupe. Takođe, pišu tekstove koji promovišu organizaciju ili temu prema medijima, kreiraju, planiraju, implementiraju i procjenjuju različite aktivnosti kojima se informira i uvjerava javnost (Verčič i Zavrl i Rijavec i Verčič Tkalac i Laco 2004).

2. ZNAČAJ GLASNOGOVORNIKA U SIGURNOSNIM AGENCIJAMA

Sigurnosne agencije imaju svog glasnogovornika čiji je cilj artikulacija zvaničnog stava svake pojedinačne institucije. Osim profesionalnih, mora da posjeduje i specifične vještine kako bi zadatke izvršavao kvalitetno. Glasnogovornik je osoba koja ima izrazite komunikacijske vještine, govori koncizno, jasno i precizno te izbjegava da koristi termine koji se koriste kao pravne formulacije, koristi razumljiv jezik, koji je blizak svakom građaninu. Osim navedenih karakteristika, glasnogovornik mora biti smiren, sa jasno vidljivom empatijom i razumijevanjem za medijske radnike i svako njihov pojedinačni zahtjev.

Glasnogovornik u svakodnevnim prilikama mora da bude strpljiv sa apsolutnom pažnjom za svaku novonastalu situaciju pa čak i one koje bi mogle da budu uvod u kriznu situaciju, kako bi takvim odnosnom mogao da ulije sigurnost i povjerenje prema građanima te zaustavi moguću eskalaciju panike ili straha. Prilikom svakodnevne komunikacije sa medijima, jako je važno da glasnogovornik ne daje odgovore poput: „Bez komentara", „Nemamo šta reći na to pitanje", „To je pitanje od nacionalne sigurnosti" ili slično. Uvijek se treba držati činjenica i govoriti istinu. U situacijama kada neko od pitanja još uvijek nema svoj zvaničan odgovor, a od javnog je interesa, glasnogovornik i sigurnosna institucija su dužni isti pronaći i u što skorijem vremenu ga prezentovati javnosti. Biti stručnjak za odnose s javnošču znači poznavati teoriju i praksu institucije koju predstavljaju, kao i poznavati elemente populacije koja se informiše (Flynn 2006).

Razvojem profesije u odnosima s javnošću, glasnogovornici sigurnosnih agencija su civilne osobe, većinom diplomirani novinari, vrsni znalci i poznavaoci prilika u sigurnosnom sektoru ili medijski profesionalci koji su većinu svog rada proveli radeći na specifičnim zadacima, koji se tiču navedene oblasti. Stoga je poznavanje tema i njihova priprema od velike važnosti za svakog glasnogovornika. Govoreći o razvoju odnosa sa javnošću, veoma je važno imati element uvjerljivost prilikom iskazvanja određenih argumenata. Tu uvjerljivost svakako moramo posjedovati kroz kvalitetno govorništvo (Skerlep 2002).

Glasnogovornik svojim neverbalnim jezikom, načinom interpretacije, ali i porukama prenosi informaciju do svakog njenog recepijenta. Mediji će takvu informaciju interpretirati na svoj način te pokušavati da dođu i do drugih informacija, ako se radi o specifičnim situacijama, ali će sadržaj onoga što glasnogovornik prezentuje prikazati kao zvaničan stav. Ukoliko se radi o kriznim situacijama ili dešavanjima koja mogu da ugroze veći dio stanovništva, glasnogovornik, svojom pojavom, sigurnošću i načinom artikulacije stavova u vezi trenutne situacije, psihološki nastoji primiriti stanovništvo. Za ovakav način iznošenja stavova određenih pojava i njihovo javno artikulisanje, glasnogovornik mora da ima multidisciplinarni pristup problemu, kao i da ima unaprijed pripremljene odgovore o mogućem razvoju situacije, a da pri tome ne izazove opštu paniku.

3. OČUVANJE IMIDŽA I SPREČAVANJE UZNEMIRENJA JAVNOSTI

Kreiranje imidža i izgradnja sigurnosnih agencija po savremenim principima, zasnovana je na izgradnji kvalitete komuniciranja s javnošću, kao i izgradnji njenog imidža. Posao ovlašćenih službenih lica u sigurnosnim agencijama se odvija neprestano. Savremenim komunikacijskim kanalima (društvenim mrežama, video servisima i sl.) ovlašćene službene osobe su pod svakodnevnom kontrolom građana, a s obzirom na spefičnost posla kojim se bave te činjenice da rade na provođenju zakona, percepcija javnosti je da su upravo oni, ti koji zakon moraju živjeti u javnom, ali i privatnom životu. Imajući u vidu navedeno, službene osobe su vidno izloženije javnom fotografisanju, snimanju i traženju propusta u njihovom radu.

Savremeno doba i digitalizacija javnog prostora pojačali su pritisak na ovlašćena službena lica, posebno u situacijama nadležnog postupanja. Službene osobe po svom opisu posla provode mjere i radnje iz svoje nadležnost, prema operativnom djelovanju, ali i prema zahtjevima pravosudnih institucija. Široka mreža videonadzora sveprisutna je na javnim mjestima, njihovi zadaci su preventivni, ali i sigurnosni. Policija ih vrlo često koristi kod počinjenja krivičnih djela i prekršaja kako bi identifikovala počinioce. Putem videonadzora moguće je utvrditi neprimjereno ponašanje policijskih službenika prema građanima.

Interes sigurnosnih agencija je da kroz kvalitetan rad PR-a svaku nepredviđenu, potencijalno opasnu situaciju preduprijedi jasno definisanim okvirom proisteklim procjenom društvenih stavova i interesa javnosti u navedenim situacijama. Ovakav angažman PR-a bi spriječio uznemirenje šire javnosti te očuvao identitet agencije, njen imidž i ugled u javnosti.

Okvir koji podrazumijeva sprečavanje moguće štete i uznemirenja javnosti u određenoj situaciji, a koji proističe iz procjene društvenih stavova, ne može biti odraz netačnih informacija, kako bi se javnost dodatno umirila. Takav privid može biti samo privremen, bez mogućnosti njegovog kontrolisanja, a ukoliko bi njegovo djelovanje u javnosti potrajalo ili ukoliko bi se njegova manifestacija razlikovala od stavova koje je prezentovala sigurnosna agencija, ista bi pretrpjela višestruku štetu, a koja je u suprotnosti sa osnovnim postulatima PR marketinga, čime bi identitet, imidž i ugled bio nepovratno urušen. Važno je napraviti distinkciju između uloge PR-a u kriznom komuniciranju i svakodnevnog, koje ima za cilj sprečavanje uznemirenja javnosti.

4. INVESTIRANJE U SIGURNOSNO NESTABILNA PODRUČJA

Definicija investicija se različito tumači, investiranje koje se često pominju u svakodnevnim situacijama zarad političkih benefita, ne smatra se istim pojmom kojeg koriste ekonomisti ili oni koji su u direktnoj korelaciji sa istom. Investiranje u svakodnevnom diskursu je način investiranja novca u određene poslovne aktivnosti, što ne definiše bilo kakvu projekciju, ekonomisti investiranjem smatraju stvaranje kapitalnih dobara i determinišu ga takvog.

Komunikatori identiteta brenda nacije su: brendirani izvoz, sportska postignuća, dijaspora, marketinške komunikacije, ambasadori brenda, kulturni artefakti, vanjska politika, iskustvo turizma, istaknute ličnosti. (Skoko i Jakopović i Gluvačević 2018, 414). Korišćenje nacionalnih i globalnih makrofinansijskih pokazatelja u kombinaciji značajno poboljšava prediktivnu sposobnost za otkrivanje sistemskih finansijskih kriza. (Tudorescu i Zaharia i Zaharia 2010). U većini slučajeva potrebno je istražiti i razumijeti različite uredničke stavove o političkim i ekonomskim pitanjima (Hynds 1990).

Sigurnosni sistem neke države zavisi od njene ekonomije, koja je zavisna od mnogo faktora, koji se ne tiču samo političkog okvira, nego i društva, obrazovanja, kulture pa čak i sporta te međunarodnih odnosa. Zemlje koje se mogu smatrati ekonomski stabilnim zemljama nemaju veću potrebu za investiranjem, a ipak su zavisne o drugim zemljama sa kojima imaju kvalitetnu saradnju po pitanju ekonomije.

Globalizacijski finansijski tokovi otvaraju mogućnosti za institucionalne investitore koji nastoje postići profit te da dugoročno pojačaju konkurentsku tržišnu poziciju te na taj način proširuju

finansijske aktivnosti koji se u konkretnom slučaju odnosi i na rizične investicije, pri tome zanemarujući pokazatelje njene sigurnosti.
Nedostaci investicija u pojedinim zemljama narušavaju i sigurnosni sistem pa se može smatrati da su investiciona ulaganja u neku zemlju u nekoj mjeri proporcionalna njenoj sigurnosti te je očita njihova direktna povezanost. Razvojem savremenih sigurnosnih kapaciteta, sistema zaštite, prevencije, zaštite infrastrukture i drugih, zemlje koje nisu u mogućnosti finansijski pratiti informaciono-tehnološke sisteme zaštite i modernizovati ih, a nemaju mogućnost da ih nabave, ne mogu biti sigurnosno stabilna područja u savremenom svijetu. Tri kategorije nedržavnih aktera međunarodnih odnosa su međuvladine organizacije, nevladine organizacije i multinacionalne korporacije, a njihova uloga na međunarodnoj pozornici nadopunjuje ulogu država u uspostavi mira, stabilnosti i poštovanju pravednih načela (Jolić 2019, 715).
Multinacionalne korporacije djeluju s ciljem sticanja profita, njihov način je direktan kontakt sa političkim rukovodstvima određenih zemalja. Ulaganjem ostvaruju konačne ciljeve, direktno se uplićući u njihove društveno-političke uslove, u većini slučajeva finansijskim sredstvima. Korporacije koje imaju društvenu odgovornost se smatraju dobrima te se njihove ekonomske moći nameću kao rezultat proistekao iz poslovne politike (David i Kline i Dai 2005).
Zbog stalnog povećanja važnosti brendiranja odredišta, brojne institucije diljem svijeta pokušavaju „izmjeriti" snagu - ili popularnost - pojedinačnih zemalja kao brendova (Skoko 2017, 13).

ZAKLJUČAK

Imajući u vidu investicijske temelje, načine zarade multinacionalnih kompanija, a istovremeno promatrajući sigurnosnu situaciju neke zemlje, možemo zaključiti da nedovoljna medijska otvorenost pojedinih zemalja uveliko smanjuje prostor za investiranje. Post-konfliktna društva iako imaju veoma nepovoljne uslove i uvijek prisutne sigurnosne rizike, medijskom otvorenošću privlače strane investitore. Agenda država, čiji se finansijski tokovi ogledaju u turizmu, svakako su kreiranju brenda takve države, kroz reklame, prirodna bogatstva, mogućnosti, ali i prezentovanju sigurnosne situacije.
Televizijska reklama u kojoj nasmiješeni građani, obično porodice, šetaju kroz neki grad ili turističko odredište, vizualizuje sigurnost takvog mjesta. Turistička mjesta imaju različita pravila kada su u pitanju lokalne zajednice, koje se odnose za vrijeme turističke sezone, ali izvan nje. Prosjačenje, krađe i prevare postaju prioritetni problemi za lokalne policije u predsezonskom period, a potpuno uklanjanje ili privid policijski posao prvog prioriteta.
S obzirom na to da investicije gotovo uvijek imaju korelaciju sa rizikom, statistički je nepouzdano posmatrati brojke koje se tiču ukupnog broja krivičnih djela u određenoj državi. Aproksimativnost takvih informacija je skup neopterećenih brojeva, koje ne sadrže jasne indikatore o broju djela, izvršitelja i sudskih procesa. Većina investitora putem svojih predstavnika, u većini slučajeva ambasada svojih država, informacije o sigurnosti preuzimaju putem medija.
Medijski analitičari u takvim institucijama su upravo zaduženi za informisanje o stanju sigurnosti jedne države, na osnovu koje se kreira zvanična informacija (rijetko dostupna javnosti) o sigurnosnoj situaciji jedne države. Velike korporacije koriste takve podatke kako bi donijele odluku o mogućem investiranju.
Sigurnosne agencije kreiraju razne aktivnosti na prevenciji i sprečavanju kriminala, na takve događaje uključuju veliki broj građana, insitucija, međunarodnih predstavnika i kroz ovaj obrazac determinišu svoju dužnosti i obavezu u uspostavljanju stabilne sigurnosne politike. U tom procesu glavne protagonist su glasnogovornici koji svojim umijećem, kvalitetnom saradnjom sa medijima i drugim organizacijama takve aktivnosti publikuju, daju im na značaju i koriste svaku priliku da o njima zvanično govore. Kvalitetan glasnogovornik koristi sve vrste komunikacijskih kanala da informiše javnost, uspješno kreira javno mnenje, afirmiše dešavanja kroz međunarodne insitucije te na taj način uspješno proda svoj „proizvod". Uspješan glasnogovornik sigurnosne agencije na visokom nivou, građanima daje sigurnost, a potencijalnim investitorima sigurno okruženje.

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Časopis za poslovnu teoriju i praksu
The paper submitted: 13/04/2023
The paper accepted: 19/04/2023

UDK 339.727.22:336.727.22]:654.17/.19
DOI 10.7251/POS2330191S
COBISS.RS-ID 138852865
Review

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THE ROLE OF SECURITY AGENCY SPOKESPERSONS IN CREATING AN INVESTMENT ENVIRONMENT

Summary: *One of the main foundations of economic development is investment. When making investment decisions, several factors are considered, but one of the most important is security. The level of security of an investment depends on the security situation in that country. There is a lot of information that can be provided by statistical data to assess how safe a particular country is for investment. Although statistics can sometimes be misleading, the power of the media has a significant influence on creating a security environment. The basic indicators of such narratives are certainly security agencies and their activities, or their indicators of the security situation in a particular country, with their main representatives and creators being spokespersons or information officers of such agencies. Their role is unique and very distinct because they aim to brand and sell their product, which is security in this specific situation. In developing and post-conflict countries, public presentation of security is of great importance to local populations as well as potential investors. The role of security agency spokespersons is of great importance due to the specificity of the work they perform, which is not about formal promotion of a product but has a crucial role in creating a positive image of the country and a secure environment for investment.*

Key words: *spokesperson, security, investment, information, media*

JEL classification: *E2, E29, F5, F52*

INTRODUCTION

Investments represent the basis for developing markets and creating new jobs. They are among the main principles on which the economy of individual countries base, as well as the political campaigns of developing countries, in whose ideas investors are the most desirable partners. Each market has a different type of risk, to which investors are willing, especially when it comes to investing in a foreign market, whose characteristics are risky for any form of business. Countries that are prone to terrorism and in which activities related to it occur, those with higher crime rates, as well as those in which corrupt and criminal activities are common, certainly deter investors, but investors can choose a specific region or micro-location for their business investment. Statistical data is often a set of numbers that reveal little, but daily public information about security aspects in a particular country can provide a framework on which investment will be based, among other things. If the media constantly publish information about the number of criminal activities, it is certain that this will short-term deter investors from investing, however, if we talk about activities taken to prevent them, which is the foundation for an extremely stable security situation, then as such, they favor investors. Security agencies and their spokespersons are the main proactive factor that has the opportunity to create public opinion every day, talking about positive aspects and the security situation, while taking into account the accuracy of information and their wider context. The attitude of security agencies towards the public creates an image and global security picture of a country, and the role of its basic presentation is precisely the spokesperson - public relations officer.

1. SECURITY AGENCIES AND MEDIA - MUTUAL INTERACTION

The term communication is of Latin origin (Latin communicare) which refers to something that is created as general. The exchange of information, ideas, and feelings between people through verbal and nonverbal means in accordance with social circumstances can be simply described as communication (Hymes 1972). The main source of information is the media, and their reports influence the shaping of public opinion. The constant interaction of security agencies with the media and the establishment of quality cooperation aims to create a safe environment and ultimately establish a quality relationship between security agencies, media, and citizens.

Security agencies represent an inexhaustible source of information for modern media, and the main principle on which their public publication is based is regular and accurate information. Although security institutions are often viewed with prejudice, that they are closed or that they give partial or ambiguous information, or that they do not give it at all, two-way communication and transparent access open up the possibility of building trust and improving the image and reputation of security agencies.

The ways of communication of security agencies usually represent classical forms of PR activities in the form of press releases, press conferences, whether it is regular (periodic conferences) or extraordinary (conducting actions, campaigns, emergency situations, etc.) conferences, answering journalists' inquiries, giving statements for radio and television, and appearing in their programs. The leaders of security agencies and their spokespersons are authorized persons for public appearances, with the exception of others for whom the manager gives consent. Each public appearance must be prepared with a wealth of information on the topic being discussed, speaking about the factual situation, and with a clear answer to each question without expressing a personal opinion. The success of public relations largely depends on striking a balance between what is binding and the ability to achieve a certain flexibility when it comes to addressing different groups or recipients of such information (Dozier and Lauzen, 2000).

Questions that are of interest to the public, but whose public disclosure could cause harm or distress to the public, the representative of the security agency authorized to speak publicly is not obliged to explain or offer any answer to it. The line between disclosing information of public interest and the potential negative consequences of such disclosure is often thin. Security agencies are obliged to implement laws regarding public information, primarily laws regarding freedom of access to information, and act in accordance with European legislative frameworks when it comes to cooperation with the media, as well as basic media freedoms.

What was the definition in journalistic discourse that it is not news when a dog bites a man, but the opposite, has become a pattern of behavior in modern journalism. Accidents, scandals, negative news attract the most media attention because, according to all research, they are the most read, watched, and listened to, based on a basic concept that focuses only on such content. Keeping such facts in mind, the focus of majority should not be on journalists, who are often said to be inclined to such news, but it is necessary to know who the recipients of such information are.

The media plays a significant role in public relations, as their positioning is unquestionable, as they serve as a channel to reach the target audience and possess immeasurable power in the speed of transmitting information. Parallel to the changes in the media and communication environment that have occurred as a result of digitization, scholars' focus is shifting towards the role of technology in political processes (Grbeša and Skoko and Bebić 2022, 246).

A practical-critical approach should enable progressiveness in overall social existence due to the exceptional importance of public relations in the social paradigm (Spicer 2000; Woodward 2006). Media relations, like journalism, is an activity that people usually perform professionally for a company, institution, organization, movement, individual, or even an idea. Their job involves a wide range of activities, including monitoring and analysing media content and assessing its impact on relevant groups. They also write texts that promote the organization or topic to the media, create, plan, implement, and evaluate various activities that inform and persuade the public (Verčič and Zavrl and Rijavec and Verčič Tkalac and Laco 2004).

2. THE IMPORTANCE OF SPOKESPERSONS IN SECURITY AGENCIES

Security agencies have their spokesperson whose goal is to articulate the official stance of each individual institution. In addition to professional skills, they must possess specific abilities to effectively perform their tasks. The spokesperson is a person with strong communication skills, speaks concisely, clearly and precisely, and avoids using legal terms, using understandable language that is close to every citizen. In addition to these characteristics, the spokesperson must be calm, with clearly visible empathy and understanding for media workers and their individual requests.

In everyday situations, the spokesperson must be patient with absolute attention to every new situation, even those that could be a precursor to a crisis situation, in order to install security and trust in the citizens through such communication, and to prevent possible escalation of panic or fear. When communicating with the media on a daily basis, it is very important that the spokesperson does not give answers like "no comment", "we have nothing to say about that question", "it is a matter of national security", or similar. Always stick to the facts and tell the truth. In situations where someone still doesn't have an official answer to a question, but it is of public interest, the spokesperson and the security institution are obliged to find it and present it to the public as soon as possible. Being an expert in public relations means having knowledge of both the theory and practice of the institution they represent, as well as understanding the elements of the population being informed (Flynn 2006).

With the development of the public relations profession, spokespersons of security agencies are civilian individuals, mostly graduate journalists, proficient experts and connoisseurs of the circumstances in the security sector or media professionals who have spent most of their work on specific tasks related to the aforementioned field. Therefore, knowledge of the topics and their preparation is of great importance for every spokesperson. When discussing the development of public relations, it is crucial to emphasize the element of persuasiveness when presenting certain arguments. This persuasiveness is undoubtedly achieved through effective public speaking skills (Skerlep 2002).

Through their nonverbal language, way of interpretation, but also messages, the spokesperson conveys information to each of its recipients. The media will interpret such information in their own way, and try to obtain other information, if it concerns specific situations, but the content of what the spokesperson presents will be shown as an official position. If it is a crisis situation or events that could endanger a larger part of the population, the spokesperson, with their appearance, security and manner of articulating views on the current situation, psychologically seeks to calm the population. For this way of expressing views on certain phenomena and their public articulation, the spokesperson must have a multidisciplinary approach to the problem, as well as to have prepared answers about the possible development of the situation, without causing general panic.

3. IMAGE PRESERVATION AND PREVENTION OF PUBLIC UPSET

Creating an image and building security agencies based on modern principles involves building quality communication with the public and developing their image. The work of authorized officials in security agencies is ongoing. Through modern communication channels (social networks, video services, etc.), authorized officials are under constant scrutiny by citizens. Given the specific nature of their job, and the fact that they work in law enforcement, public perception is that they are the ones who must live by the law in both their public and private lives. Considering this, officials are visibly exposed to public photography, filming, and scrutiny of their work.

The modern era and digitization of public space have increased the pressure on authorized officials, especially in situations requiring competent action. Officials, according to their job description, carry out measures and actions within their jurisdiction, based on operational action, but also in accordance with the demands of judicial institutions. The extensive network of video surveillance is ubiquitous in public places, and their tasks are both preventive and security-oriented. The police often use them in the commission of criminal offenses and misdemeanors to identify perpetrators. Through video surveillance, it is possible to determine inappropriate behavior of police officers towards citizens.

The interest of security agencies is to prevent any unforeseen and potentially dangerous situation through quality PR work, within a clearly defined framework resulting from the assessment of social attitudes and interests of the public in such situations. Such PR engagement would prevent public unrest and preserve the agency's identity, image, and reputation.

The framework that implies preventing possible damage and public unrest in a given situation, resulting from the assessment of social attitudes, cannot be a reflection of inaccurate information, in order to further calm the public. Such an illusion can only be temporary, without the possibility of controlling its effects, and if its impact on the public were to last or if its manifestation differed from the attitudes presented by the security agency, it would suffer multiple damages, which are contrary to the basic postulates of PR marketing, thus irreparably damaging its identity, image, and reputation. It is important to make a distinction between the role of PR in crisis communication and the everyday goal of preventing public unrest.

4. INVESTING IN SECURITY UNSTABLE AREAS

The definition of investment is interpreted differently, and the investment often mentioned in everyday situations for political benefits is not considered the same concept used by economists or those directly related to it. In everyday discourse, investing refers to investing money in certain business activities, which does not define any projection, whereas economists consider investing as the creation of capital goods and determine it as such.

The communicators of a nation's brand identity are: branded exports, sports achievements, diaspora, marketing communications, brand ambassadors, cultural artefacts, foreign policy, tourism experience, and prominent personalities (Skoko and Jakopović, and Gluvačević 2018, 414). Using national and global macro financial indicators in combination significantly improves the predictive ability for detecting systemic financial crises. (Tudorescu and Zaharia and Zaharia 2010). In most cases, it is necessary to research and understand various editorial viewpoints on political and economic issues (Hynds 1990).

The security system of a country depends on its economy, which is dependent on many factors that are not only related to the political framework but also to society, education, culture, and even sports and international relations. Countries that can be considered economically stable do not have a greater need for investment, yet they are still dependent on other countries with which they have a quality economic cooperation.

Global financial flows open up opportunities for institutional investors seeking profit and long-term competitive market positions, thereby expanding financial activities that also relate to risky investments, while ignoring indicators of their safety.

The disadvantages of investments in certain countries also undermine the security system, so it can be considered that investment investments in a country are to some extent proportional to its security, and their direct connection is evident. With the development of modern security capacities, protection, prevention, infrastructure protection, and others, countries that cannot financially follow information technology security systems and modernize them, and do not have the ability to obtain them, cannot be considered security-stable areas in the modern world. The three categories of non-state actors in international relations are intergovernmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, and multinational corporations, and their role on the international stage complements the role of states in establishing peace, stability, and respect for just principles (Jolić 2019, 715).

Multinational corporations operate with the aim of profit acquisition, and their approach involves direct engagement with political leadership in specific countries. Through investments, they pursue their ultimate goals by directly influencing their socio-political conditions, often through financial means. Corporations that demonstrate social responsibility are considered positive, and their economic power arises as a result of their business policies (David, Kline, & Dai 2005).

Due to the constant increase in the importance of destination branding, numerous institutions around the world are trying to "measure" the strength - or popularity - of individual countries as brands (Skoko 2017, 13).

CONCLUSION

Taking into account the investment foundations, ways of earning multinational companies, and at the same time observing the security situation of a country, we can conclude that insufficient media openness of certain countries greatly reduces the space for investment. Post-conflict societies, despite having very unfavourable conditions and always present security risks, attract foreign investors through media openness. The agenda of countries, whose financial flows are reflected in tourism, is certainly creating a brand for such a country, through advertisements, natural resources, opportunities, but also presenting the security situation.

A television commercial in which smiling citizens, usually families, walk through a city or tourist destination visualizes the security of such a place. Tourist destinations have different rules when it comes to local communities, which apply during the tourist season, but outside of it. Begging, thefts, and scams become priority problems for local police in the pre-season period, and completely removing or creating the illusion of police work is the top priority.

Since investments almost always have a correlation with risk, it is statistically unreliable to look at figures related to the total number of crimes in a particular country. The approximate nature of such information is a set of unencumbered numbers that do not contain clear indicators of the number of crimes, perpetrators, and judicial processes. Most investors, through their representatives, in most cases the embassies of their countries, obtain information about security through the media.

Media analysts in such institutions are precisely responsible for informing about the security situation of a state, based on which official information (rarely available to the public) about the security situation of a state is created. Large corporations use such data to make decisions about possible investments.

Security agencies create various activities to prevent and prevent crime, involving a large number of citizens, institutions, international representatives, and through this pattern determine their duties and obligations in establishing a stable security policy. In this process, the main protagonists are spokespersons who, with their skills, quality cooperation with the media and other organizations, publish such activities, give them importance, and use every opportunity to speak about them officially. A quality spokesperson uses all types of communication channels to inform the public, successfully creates public opinion, affirms events through international institutions, and thus successfully sells his "product". A successful spokesperson for a security agency at a high level gives citizens security and potential investors a secure environment.

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God. 14, br. 27/28 (2022)

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Izvor: lokalna baza podataka COBISS.RS/NUBRS, 15. 7. 2022