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FORFETING KAO SAVREMENI OBLIK FINANSIRANJA PREDUZEĆA

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Apstract

Tehnika forfetinga obuhvata otkup nedospelih dugoročnih spoljnotrgovinskih potraživanja koja ispunjavaju određene uslove u pogledu ročnosti, vrste i dospeća. Na taj način preduzeće ima mogućnost da proda poslovnoj banci ili nekom drugom specijalizovanom finansijskom telu za forfeting svoje spoljnotrgovinsko potraživanje koje nije opterećeno mogućnošću regresnih zahteva drugih lica prema kupcu potraživanja, a koje je obezbeđeno nekim od ugovornih sredstava obezbeđenja. Forfeting transakcijom preduzeće eliminiše moguće gubitke zbog nelikvidnosti, rizike rasta kamatnih stopa u budućnosti, rizike po osnovu fluktuirajućih deviznih kurseva, rizik po osnovu promene boniteta i finansijske pozicije dužnika, eliminiše administrativne probleme i prateće troškove oko naplate potraživanja. Ovaj rad ima za cilj da ukaže na postupak primene tehnike forfetinga i mehanizme eskontne stope u zavisnosti od rizika, perioda otplate, valute i iznosa same transakcije.

Ključne reči: *forfeting, otkup potraživanja, finansijsko tržište, eskont.*

JEL: *F10, G3.*

Uvod

Pored faktoringa, postoji još jedna vrlo slična vrsta parabankarskog posla, a to je forfeting ili forfetiranje. Sam termin potiče od francuske reči „a forfait”, odnosno nemačke „fortaitirung”, pri čemu obe označavaju da se „zarobi” nečije pravo. Radi se o otkupu srednjoročih i dugoročnih spoljnotrgovinskih potraživanja koja ispunjavaju određene uslove u pogledu ročnosti, vrste i dospeća. Poželjno je da potraživanja, koja su prihvatljiva za posao forfetinga, potiču iz posla izvoza ili

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uvoza kapitalnih dobara. Forfeting je način finansiranja pojedinačnih potraživanja preduzeća koja proizvode opremu i industrijska postrojenja, izgradnje objekata (po sistemu „ključ u ruke”) ili izvođenja investicionih radova sa odloženim rokom plaćanja, ukoliko, iz bilo kojih drugih razloga, nije moguće primeniti neki drugi oblik finansiranja. Takođe, forfeting je efikasan mehanizam za podsticanje izvoza.

U Srbiji se nedavno pojavio forfeting koji uključuje otkup dugoročnih potraživanja koja potiču iz izvoznog posla umanjenih za odgovarajući iznos zasnovan na prezentovanju dokumenata kojima uvoznik garantuje otplatu duga (Miljković, Miljković, 2011). Ovaj rad ima za cilj da istakne značaj tehnike forfetinga kao savremenog parabankarskog oblika finansiranja preduzeća, kao i da ukaže na postupak primene tehnike forfetinga i mehanizma eskontne stope u zavisnosti od rizika, perioda otplate, valute i iznosa same transakcije.

Koncept tehnike forfetinga

Forfetiranje kao vid finansiranja spoljnotrgovinskih transakcija je započeto u Cirihu, nakon drugog svetskog rata, po osnovu izvršenja prodaje američkih žitarica istočnoevropskim zemljama. Ugovor o forfetiranju prvi put su koristile švajcarske banke tokom Drugog svetskog rata. Njegova posebnost se ogleda u tome da banke ili posebne korporacije za faktoring vrše avansna plaćanja potraživanja koja su obično tipa prenosnih instrumenata (npr. solo i vučene menice) i preuzimaju izvozna potraživanja bez regresa radi plaćanja izvoznicima, u slučaju da uvoznik ne ispuni plaćanje (Velentzas et al., 2013). Za sigurnost potraživanja agenta (forfetera) može da garantuje banka. Jedan manji broj ciriških finansijskih kompanija koje su se specijalizovale za finansiranje vezanih poslova između zemalja Istočne i Zapadne Evrope bile su u jedinstvenoj poziciji da procene rizike u ovom domenu. One su, uz prilično visoku premiju, počele da eskontuju menice istočnoevropskih uvoznika vršeći plaćanja u gotovini prema izvoznicima iz SAD koji su bili zainteresovani da što pre dođu do likvidnih sredstava.

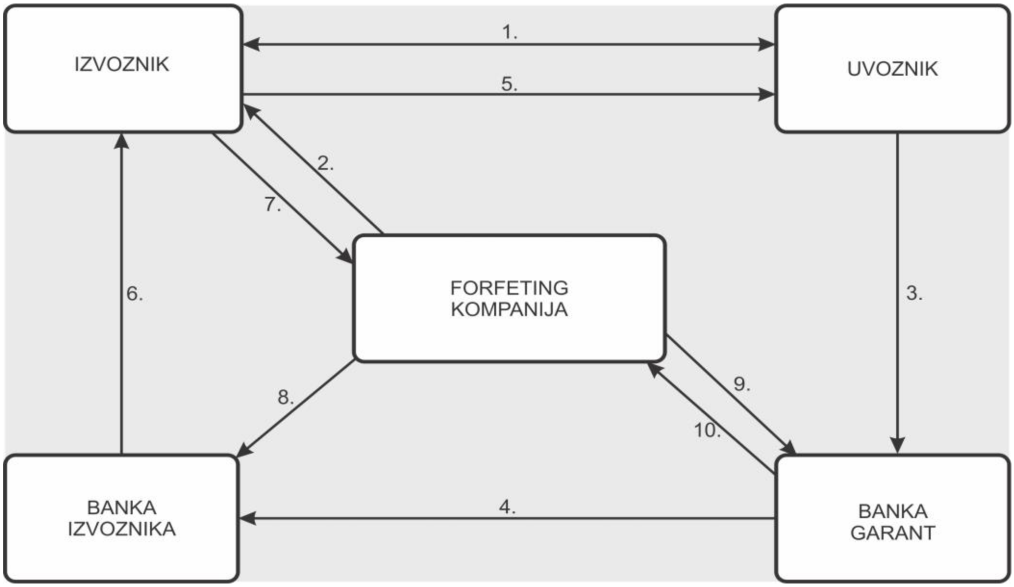
Tokom sedamdesetih godina XX veka, London je kao centar za transakcije forfetiranja postao veliki konkurent Cirihu, a potraživanja čiji je otkup vršen sve više su poticala od uvoznika iz zemalja u razvoju, da bi ujedno forfetiranje dobilo na značaju i kao instrument finansiranja trgovine među industrijskim zemljama. Snažni podsticaj širenju uloge forfetiranja u finansiranju međunarodne trgovine došao je sa razvojem sekundarnog tržišta hartija od vrednosti i drugih instrumenata koje obuhvataju novčano potraživanje (Kapor, 2005). Forfeting transakcije mogu su izvršiti relativno brzo i jednostavno i obično su veoma profitabilne. Evropski finansijeri smatraju da su forfeting transakcije transakcije visokog prinosa i visokog rizika. Preuzimanje većeg rizika se ustoličilo u Evropi, gde su zemlje obično uključene u forfeting transakcije uspostavile dobre komercijalne odnose i uskladile svoju spoljnotrgovinsku regulativu (Ludwig, Coursey, 1986).

U razvijenim tržišnim privredama, mehanizmi za podsticanje izvoza, putem forfetinga pojavili su se sredinom osamdesetih, a puni razvoj doživljavaju sredinom devedesetih godina XX veka. Zbog specifičnosti, složenosti i rizičnosti ovih poslova (Živković, 2019), osnovane su i posebne afilijacije banaka koje obavljaju isključivo ove poslove, mada se forfetiranje sve češće javlja i kao oblik poslovanja specijalizovanih forfeting preduzeća. Forfeting je sličan faktoringu, ali se odnosi na transakcije koje obuhvataju srednjoročna potraživanja izvoznika kapitalnih dobara (Chauffour, Farole, 2009). Tehnički posmatrano, forfeting je poseban pravni posao koji se sastoji od otkupa nedospelih dugoročnih spoljnotrgovinskih potraživanja (sa rokom otplate od obično 5–7 godina). Uslovi pod kojim forfeting preduzeće pruža forfeting usluge bitno zavise od kreditne sposobnosti podnosioca i klijenta, kao i od kreditne sposobnosti banke koja je izdala instrument plaćanja (Sedliačiková et al., 2014). Izvoznik prodaje banci ili nekom specijalizovanom finansijskom telu svoje spoljnotrgovinsko potraživanje koje nije opterećeno mogućnošću regresnih zahteva drugih lica prema kupcu potraživanja, a koje je obezbeđeno nekim od ugovornih sredstava obezbeđenja. Potraživanja koja se forfetiraju praćena su prvorazrednim bankarskim obezbeđenjem u formi avala ili garancije (prenosive, abstraktne), i na taj način forfeter je zaštićen od rizika i može da uradi reeskont papira na sekundarnom tržištu (Mladenović, 2010). „Transakcije se međusobno razlikuju u mnogim aspektima, prema iznosima, vrsti finansirane robe, dokumentacije koja dokazuje trgovinu, roku finansiranja i identitetu ugovornih strana i garanta” (Willsher, 1995).

Odricanje od regresnog prava smatra se osnovnom karakteristikom forfetiranja u odnosu na druge poslove kreditnog karaktera, a na taj način prenosilac potraživanja oslobađa se od svakog rizika u vezi sa naplatom potraživanja i odgovara samo za pravno postojanje potraživanja. Forfetiranje se obično vrši za potraživanja koja se kreću od 100.000 mil USD, ili čak od 500.000 mil USD (Madura, 2008). Izvozna potraživanja zasnovana na kreditnim poslovima pretvaraju se u gotovinske transakcije, oslobađajući bilans izvoznika od odgovornosti i oslobađajući kreditne linije, koje se zatim mogu koristiti za druge finansijske potrebe (Guild, Harris, 1986).

Forfeting je složen mehanizam u kome mogu da učestvuju četiri subjekta (proizvođač-izvoznik, kupac-uvoznik, banka kupca-uvoznika i forfeter). Ugovor o forfetingu zaključuje proizvođač kapitalnih dobara sa forfeterom koji prodaju vrši na bazi komercijalnog (robnog) kredita. Suština ugovora o forfetingu je u tome da forfeter, putem cesije, preuzima od izvoznika potraživanje prema drugom licu (kupcu dobara). Forfeter prihvata cesiju potraživanja i isplaćuje neto vrednost prenetih potraživanja prodavcu, kao svom klijentu, uz odbitak kamate, provizije i troškova vezanih za forfeting transakciju, pri čemu se forfeter obavezuje da će snositi rizik naplate potraživanja (tj. neće zatražiti regresiranje nenaplaćenih potraživanja od proizvođača - prodavca).

Slika 1. Grafički prikaz forfeting transakcije na bazi otkupa meničnog potraživanja



Izvor: Autori

Na grafičkom prikazu forfeting transakcije (*Slika 1*) možemo identifikovati korake koje prate mehanizam zaključenja forfeting transakcije:

1. Sklapanje komercijalnog ugovora;
2. Forfeter obezbeđuje pismenu „čvrstu obavezu" da otkupi, sa klauzulom „bez obaveza", „bez regresa", menice avalirane od strane Banke uvoznika;
3. Menice i pismo o instrukcijama predate su od strane uvoznika njegovoj Banci koja avalira menice;
4. Menice se šalju Banci izvoznika;
5. Izvoznik isporučuje robu uvozniku;
6. Uručenje menica izvozniku;
7. Izvoznik uručuje menice i dokumentaciju Forfeteru;
8. Forfeter doznačava sredstva (umanjenu za eskont) na račun izvoznika sa ugovorenim odbitkom kamate, provizija i ostalih troškova;

9. Po svakom dospeću Forfeter podnosi menice Banci garantu na naplatu o dospeću;
10. Prilikom svakog dospeća menica, Banka Garant isplaćuje nominalnu vrednost menica na račun Forfetera.

Kao što je navedeno, prenos potraživanja u međunarodnoj praksi najčešće se ostvaruje putem sopstvene menice koju izdaje uvoznik a avalira njegova banka, uz stavljanje klauzula „bez obaveza”, „bez regresa” od strane izvoznika koji uz naknadu ustupa potraživanje. Forfetiranje kao forma finansiranja ima karakteristike finansiranja „poslednjeg utočišta” („last resort lender”) za izvoznika (i uvoznika) jer se odobrava i za visokorizične zemlje za koje se ne može obezbediti drugi izvor finansiranja ili pokriće osiguranja od (komercijalnih i nekomercijalnih) rizika izvoza. Ne postoji obaveza izvoznika da sve pojedinačne poslove poverava forfeteru. Troškovi forfetinga mogu da se uključe u cenu izvoznog posla. Forfetiranje na sekundarnim tržištima ima visoku premiju jer su i rizici obično veći, ali forfeting kompanija može da se zaštiti od rizika putem hedžing tehnika zaštite od rizika u upravljanju portfolijom (McKibbin, Pistrui, 1997).

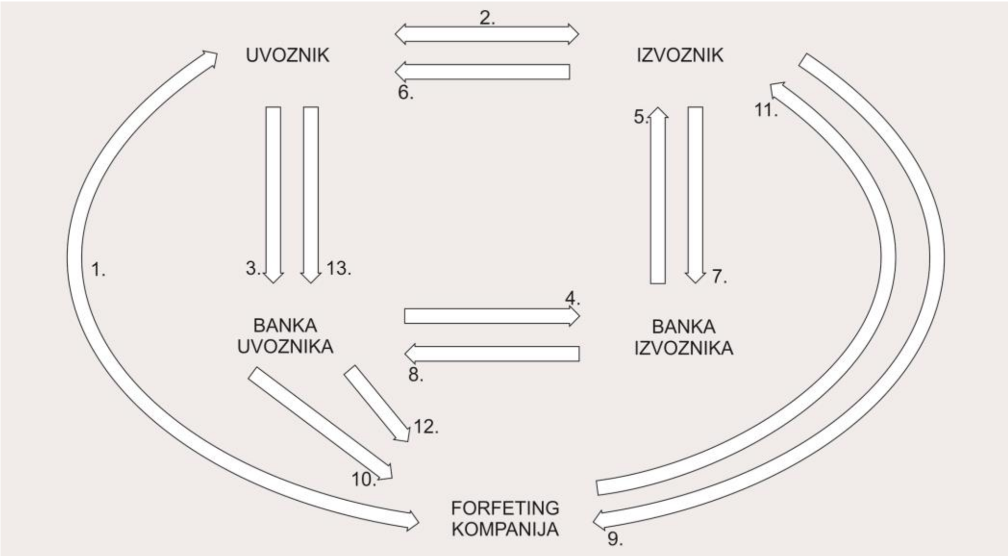
Prenos prava potraživanja kod forfeting poslova može se realizovati i putem cesije (gde se radi samo o zameni poverilaca jer je raniji imalac odgovoran za potraživanja, ali ne i za naplativost istih) i prenosom dokumentarnog akreditiva sa izvoznika na forfetera (forfeter, na dan dospeća potraživanja, podnosi akreditivnoj banci dokumenta kojima se potvrđuje da su ispunjeni svi uslovi za isplatu iznosa, ali je prethodno potrebno obezbediti saglasnost svih učesnika u akreditivnom poslu).

Na grafičkom prikazu forfeting transakcije (*Slika 2*) možemo identifikovati korake koje prate mehanizam zaključenja forfeting transakcije na bazi prenosa dokumentarnog akreditiva:

1. Uslovi forfeting transakcije se ugovaraju između izvoznika i Forfetera;
2. Sklapa se komercijalni ugovor;
3. Uvoznik daje instrukciju svojoj banci da izdaje dokumentarni akreditiv;
4. Dokumentarni akreditiv se izdaje banci izvoznika kako bi bio aviziran i/ili konfirmiran od strane banke uvoznika;
5. Banka izvoznika šalje obaveštenje o otvaranju akreditiva izvozniku;
6. Roba se isporučuje od strane izvoznika;
7. Izvoznik prezentuje dokumentaciju robe za otpremu svojoj banci radi prihvata;
8. Banka izvoznika šalje dokumente poslovnoj banci uvoznika;
9. Izvoznik cedira svoja prava po osnovu predmetnog potraživanja na Forfetera;

10. Banka uvoznika prihvata cesiju;
11. Forfeter eskontira akreditiv i vrši isplatu izvozniku.
12. Po dospeću potraživanja banka uvoznika vrši isplatu Forfeteru.
13. Uvoznik vrši plaćanje prema svojoj banci.

Slika 2. Grafički prikaz forfeting transakcije na bazi cesije dokumentarnog akreditiva



Izvor: Autori

Metodološki okvir istraživanja

Tehnika forfetinga kao alternativna metoda finansiranja izvoza doživljava sve veći značaj na svetskim finansijskim tržištima. Ovaj rad istražuje mehanizam tehnike forfetinga kao savremenog parabankarskog oblika finansiranja izvoza preduzeća i ukazuje na postupak primene tehnike forfetinga i mehanizma eskontne stope u zavisnosti od rizika, perioda otplate, valute i iznosa same transakcije(Surendranath et al., 2020). Analiza će se zasnivati na deskriptivnoj metodi, metodi upoređivanja, metodi analize i sinteze i analizi sekundarnih podataka iz dostupne literature na ovu temu.

Rezultati i diskusija

Eskontna stopa se se zaračunava u zavisnosti od rizika, perioda otplate, valute i iznosa koji je uključen u transakciju. Forfeting kompanije koriste dve glavne metode eskontiranja: Direktni metod eskontovanja (eng.„Straight Discount”) i Eskont do stope prinosa (eng. „Discount to Yield Rate”). Prema Jovićević i Vujić (2012) kamate koje se oduzimaju od iznosa potraživanja zovu se eskont (francuski „escompte“) ili diskont (engleski „discount“), tako da se sam posao zove eskontni posao, a stopa po kojoj se računaju kamate eskontna stopa. Iznos eskonta treba da pokrije troškove i zaradu forfetera, što odgovara efektivnoj eskontnoj stopi. Prema Lütschg-Emmenegger (1998) direktni metod eskontovanja (eng. „Straight Discount”) izražava eskontnu stopu kao procenat eskontiran od nominalne vrednosti potraživanja s obzirom na definisano dospeće. Eskontna stopa se primenjuje na nominalnu vrednost za izračunavanje sadašnje vrednosti potraživanja bez primene tehnike ukamaćivanja

$$\text{plativa kamata / eskont} = \frac{p \ x \ Kn \ x \ d}{360 x 100}$$

gde je: E – eskont (kamata), K_0 – sadašnja vrednost (neto vrednost tj. isplaćen iznos nakon odbitka kamate ili eskonta), K_n – buduća vrednost potraživanja (ili nominalna vrednost potraživanja), d – broj dana do dospeća potraživanja, p – eskontna stopa (%), a eskontovana vrednost potraživanja (eskontovan iznos) je $K_0 = K_n – E$.

Tabela 1. Eskontiranje srednjoročne transakcije sa različitim rokovima dospeća i nejednakim iznosima

Kamatna stopa			7,5% p.a. (direktan eskont)		
Grejs period			5 dana		
Nominalna vrednost/ buduća vrednost potraživanja			USD 1.020.000		
Iznosi (u USD)			Rok dospeća		
150.000			15/06/17		
120.000			28/02/18		
750.000			10/05/18		
50.000			31/10/18		
Broj menica			4		
Valuta			USD		
Datum prihvata obaveze			2/06/17		
Datum raspoloživosti menica			2/06/17		
Eskontna stopa % p. a.			7,5% p. a. straight discount (direktni eskont)		
Način obračuna kamate			365/360		
DETALJI MENICE					
Br.	**Dospeće**	**Dana**	**Nominalna vrednost**	**Iznos eskonta**	**Neto vrednost**
1.	15/6/17 +1	14	150.000,00	437,50	149.562,50
2.	28/2/18 +2	273	120.000,00	6.825,00	113.175,00
3.	10/5/18 +1	343	750.000,00	53.593,75	696.406,25
4.	31/10/18 +2	518	50.000,00	5.395,83	44.604,17
			1.070.000,00	**66.252,08**	**1.003.747,92**

Izvor: Proračun autora

Ilustracije radi u *Tabeli 1* dat je set menica sa različitim rokovima dospeća i nejednakim iznosima srednjoročne transakcije, prilagođeno prema Lütschg-Emmenegger (1998).

Direktni metod eskontovanja izračunava se na osnovu nominalne vrednosti za postizanje neto vrednosti, stoga buduća ili nominalna vrednost potraživanja – kamata (eskont) = sadašnja ili neto vrednost potraživanja(Vukša & Pantić, 2020). Dok je primer upotrebe metode direktnog eskonta za srednjoročnu transakciju sa različitim rokovima dospeća i nejednakim iznosima dat u *Tabeli 1*, eskontiranje srednjoročne transakcije sa 10 polugodišnjih rata, jednakih iznosa glavnice i redovnih šestomesečnih dospeća je prikazano u *Tabeli 2*, prilagođeno prema Lütschg-Emmenegger (1998).

Tabela 2. Eskontiranje srednjoročne transakcije sa 10 polugodišnjih rata, jednakih iznosa glavnice i redovnih šestomesečnih dospeća

Kamatna stopa		7,5% p. a. (direktan eskont)			
Grejs period		5 dana			
Nominalna vrednost potraživanja		US $ 1.000.000			
Broj menica		10			
Valuta		US $			
Datum prihvata obaveze		2/07/17			
Datum raspoloživosti menica		2/07/17			
Eskontna stopa % p. a.		7,5% p.a. straight discount (direktni eskont)			
Način obračuna kamate		365/360			
DETALJI MENICE					
Br.	**Dospeće**	**Dana**	**Nominalna vrednost**	**Iznos eskonta**	**Neto vrednost**
1.	2/01/18	184	100.000,00	3.833,33	96.166,67
2.	2/07/18	365	100.000,00	7.604,17	92.395,83
3.	2/01/19+2	551	100.000,00	11.479,17	88.520,83
4.	2/07/19	730	100.000,00	15.208,33	84.791,67
5.	2/01/20+1	915	100.000,00	19.062,50	80.937,50
6.	2/07/20+1	1.097	100.000,00	22.854,17	77.145,83
7.	2/01 /21	1.280	100.000,00	26.666,67	73.333,33
8.	2/07/21	1.461	100.000,00	30.437,50	69.562,50
9.	2/01/22	1.645	100.000,00	34.270,83	65.729,17
10.	2/07/22	1.826	100.000,00	38.041,67	61.958,33
			1.000.000,00	**209.458,34**	**790.541,66**

Izvor: Proračun autora

Eskont do prinosa (Discount to Yield Rate) formira osnovu za obračun eskontne stope i izražava eskontnu stopu kao kamatonosni trošak na godišnjoj osnovi. Eskontna stopa je prinos koji će sadašnja vrednost potraživanja dostići kada na datum dospeća dostigne svoju buduću (nominalnu) vrednost potraživanja

$$\text{Divizor} = \left(\frac{p\ x\ d}{360x100}\right) + 1$$

Eskontovana vrednost menice K_0 = Kn / Devizor

Obračun direktnog eskonta znatno je jednostavniji (zbog jednostavnog obračuna kamate), za razliku od izračunavanja eskonta na prinos (zbog primene ukamaćivanja).

Primer kalkulacije metodom ekonta do stope prinosa
Buduća vrednost potraživanja / Nominalna vrednost = USD 1.000.000; broj dana 548 dana; Eskontna stopa 10% p.a.; polugodišnje ukamaćivanje
a) kalkulacija divizora:

i) prvo razdoblje (prva polovina godine) $\left(\frac{10 \text{ x } 183}{360x100}\right) + 1 = 1.0508333$

ii) drugo razdoblje (druga polovina godine) $\left(\frac{10 \text{ x } 182}{360x100}\right) + 1 = 1.0505555$

iii) treće razdoblje (treća polovina godine) $= \left(\frac{10 \text{ x } 183}{360x100}\right) + 1 = 1.0508333$

b) kalkulacija sadašnje vrednosti (za prva tri dospeća menica iz *Tabele 3*):

i) US$100.000 / 1,050833 = US$ 95.162,57

ii) US$95.162,57 / 1,0505555 = US$ 90.583,09

iii) US$90.583,09 / 1,0508333 = US$ 86.201,20

Ilustracije radi daje se primer seta menica uz primenu metode eskonta do prinosa sa polugodišnjem ukamaćivanjem u *Tabeli 3*.

Tabela 3. Eskont do prinosa sa polugodišnjem ukamaćivanjem

Kamatna stopa	10% p. a. (eskont do prinosa (polugodišnje ukamaćivanje))
Grejs period	0 dana
Nominalna vrednost potraživanja	US $ 1.000000
Broj dana do dospeća	u 10 polugodišnjih rata
Prosečni period otplate	2,75 godina
Broj menica	10
Valuta	US $
Datum prihvata obaveze	2/06/17
Datum raspoloživosti menica	2/06/17
Eskontna stopa % p. a.	10% p. a. (eskont do prinosa (polugodišnje ukamaćivanje))
Način obračuna kamate	365/360

DETALJI MENICE					
Br.	**Dospeće**	**Dana**	**Nominalna vrednost**	**Iznos eskonta**	**Neto vrednost**
1.	2/12/18	183	100.000,00	4.837,43	95.162,57
2.	2/06/18	365	100.000,00	9.416,91	90.583,09
3.	2/12/18	548	100.000,00	13.798,80	86.201,20
4.	2/06/19	730	100.000,00	17.947,04	82.052,96
5.	2/12/19	913	100.000,00	21.916,29	78.083,71
6.	2/06/20	1.096	100.000,00	25.694,53	74.305,47
7.	2/12/20 +2	1.281	100.000,00	29.328,26	70.671,74
8.	2/06/21 +2	1.463	100.000,00	32.729,17	67.270,83
9.	2/12/21 +1	1.645	100.000,00	35.965,58	64.034,42
10.	2/06/22 +1	1.827	100.000,00	39.047,09	60.952,91
			1.000.000.00	**230.681,10**	**769.318,90**

Izvor: Proračun autora

Uporedni prikaz direktnog eskonta i eskonta do prinosa (obračunatog polugodišnje), prilagođeno prema Lütschg-Emmenegger (1998), prikazan je u *Tabeli 4*. Možemo primetiti da se neto vrednost menice razlikuje, tj. da je njena vrednost veća, ukoliko primenimo metod ekonta do prinosa.

Tabela 4. Uporedni prikaz direktnog eskonta i eskonta do prinosa (obračunatog polugodišnje)

METOD DIREKTNOG ESKONTA					
Kamatna stopa	10% p.a.				
Grejs period	5 dana				
Nominalna vrednost potraživanja	US $ 1.000.000				
Broj dana do dospeća	5 godina (plaćanje odjednom „bullet repayment“)				
Broj menica	1				
Valuta	US $				
Datum prihvata obaveze	2/06/17				
Datum raspoloživosti menica	2/06/17				
Grejs period	5 dana				
Eskontna stopa % p. a.	10% p. a. straight discount (direktni eskont)				
Način obračuna kamate	365/360				
DETALJI MENICE					
Br.	**Dospeće**	**Dana**	**Nominalna vrednost**	**Iznos eskonta**	**Neto vrednost**
1.	2/06/22 +1	1.832	1.000.000,00	508.888,89	491.111,11
			1.000.000,00	**508.888,89**	**491.111,11**
METOD ESKONTA DO PRINOSA (polugodišnje ukamaćivanje)					
Kamatna stopa	10% p. a.				
Grejs period	5 dana				
Nominalna vrednost potraživanja	US $ 1.000.000				
Broj dana do dospeća	5 godina (plaćanje odjednom „bullet repayment”)				
Broj menica	1				
Valuta	US $				
Datum prihvata obaveze	2/06/17				
Datum raspoloživosti menica	2/06/17				
Grejs period	5 dana				
Eskontna stopa % p. a.	10% p.a. (eskonta do prinosa, polugodišnje ukamaćivanje)				
Način obračuna kamate	365/360				
DETALJI MENICE					
Br.	**Dospeće**	**Dana**	**Nominalna vrednost**	**Iznos eskonta**	**Neto vrednost**
1.	2/06/22 +1	1.832	1.000.000,00	391.315,79	608.684,21
			1.000.000,00	**391.315,79**	**608.684,21**

Izvor: Obračun autora

Eskontna stopa forfetera zavisiće od rizika predmetne transakcije (rizika zemlje, komercijalnog rizika transakcije, rizika promene kamatne stope i dužine perioda preuzete obaveze finansiranja) i biće izražena u Euribor-u ili LIBOR-u (Bishop, 2004) za relevantnu valutu i rok, na koju će se dodati marža fofetera. Uz to, forfeter će zaračunati i proviziju za angažovanje sredstava (eng. „commitment fee”) koja se naplaćuje za period od kada forfeter preuzme obavezu da izvrši forfetiranje za određenu transakciju do dana kada se efektivno izvrši otkup potraživanja. U slučajevima da forfeter angažuje (rezerviše) sredstva za određeni period, a forfeting transakcija se ne realizuje, odnosno ukoliko izvoznik ne zaključi ili ne može da realizuje ugovor, može se predvideti i plaćanje penala do 2% od vrednosti potraživanja.

Postoje i specijalne provizije (eng. „special charges”, „handling fee”, „documentation fee”) koje se naplaćuju u zavisnosti od specifičnosti svake transakcije. Ugovor o forfetiranju nije regulisan u uporednom pravu nego je proizvod bankarske i poslovne prakse. Na njega se primenjuju pravila autonomnog međunarodnog trgovačkog prava, opšti uslovi poslovanja, tipski ugovori, kao i odgovarajuće norme trgovačkog i obligacionog prava zemlje čije bi pravo bilo merodavno za primenu (Šogorov, 2004). Kada se radi o forfeting transakciji i kada se kupac nalazi u zemljama visokog rizika forfeteri insistiraju na tipskim tekstovima bezuslovne i neopozive garancije, i potvrdi banke garanta da će se plaćanje izvršiti u roku, kao i dostavi spesimena zvaničnih ovlašćenih potpisnika(Rongrong, 2020). Od izvoznika se traži pismena izjava kojom potvrđuje da je izvršio sve ugovorne obaveze.

Osnovna pogodnost za uvoznika je da putem forfetiranja može dobiti do 100% finansiranja uvoza robe, upravo kada mu drugi uobičajeni izvori sredstava nisu dostupni. Finansiranje može da bude i po fiksnoj kamatnoj stopi. Forfetiranje je fleksibilan način da se izvozniku/uvozniku ponude opcije u pogledu izbora valute, rokova dospeća i „grace” perioda. Dokumenta koja treba obezbediti izvozniku su standardizovana. S druge strane, uvoznik mora da bude spreman da plati nešto višu cenu za proizvode koje uvozi, zato što ta cena uglavnom sadrži i troškove forfetiranja koje većina izvoznika, u zavisnosti od svoje pregovaračke pozicije, nastoji da prevali na uvoznika. Uvoznik treba da podmiri i proviziju banke za avaliranje menice ili izdavanje akreditiva (ili garancije). Prema Kaporu (2005) osnovna prednost za forfetera je to što putem ove transakcije može srazmerno više da zaradi nego kada su u pitanju klasični komercijalni zajmovi iste ročnosti i rizičnosti. Transakcije se brzo realizuju, a dokumentacija se jednostavno i brzo procesuira. Forfeter snosi sve rizike u vezi sa promenom kursa i kamatne stope. Forfeter mora vrlo dobro da poznaje sve propise u vezi sa menicama (solo i vučene menice), akreditivima i garancijama u zemlji uvoznika, kao i da proveri bonitet garanta. Forfeting transakcijom preduzeće eliminiše moguće gubitke zbog nelikvidnosti, rizike rasta kamatnih stopa u budućnosti, rizike po osnovu fluktuirajućih deviznih kurseva, rizik po osnovu promene boniteta i finansijskog statusa dužnika, eliminiše administrativne probleme i prateće troškove oko naplate potraživanja. Prednosti forfetiranja za izvoznika su veoma značajne jer se na taj način prodaja kapitalnih dobara na kredit pretvara u gotovinsku transakciju, što pospešuje brži obrt kapitala, poboljšava likvidnost i povećava potencijal za buduće zaduživanje. Forfeting transakcijom preduzeće eliminiše moguće gubitke zbog nelikvidnosti, rizike rasta kamatnih stopa u budućnosti, rizike po osnovu fluktuirajućih deviznih kurseva, rizik po osnovu promene boniteta i finansijskog statusa dužnika, eliminiše administrativne probleme i prateće troškove oko naplate potraživanja. Značajna je mogućnost brzog zaključenja ugovora o forfetingu zbog jednostavne dokumentacije.

Ipak, pored gore navedenih prednosti, pojedine zemlje nailaze i na poteškoće u primeni forfetinga u praksi. Prema autoru Kyrmizoglou (2016), grčka struktura nacionalne proizvodnje (sektor usluga 80,6%, industrije 16% i poljoprivrede 3,4%) ukazuje na slabu poziciju proizvodnog sektora. Činjenica da se velika većina industrijske proizvodnje u Grčkoj sastoji od robe široke potrošnje, utiče na nedovoljni potencijal za zaključivanje forfeting poslova. Kyrmizoglou (2016) takođe ističe i dodatne razloge koji su prouzrokovali poteškoće pri širenju forfeting transakcija u Grčkoj: forfeting transakcije zahtevaju usko specijalizovano osoblje sa dugogodišnjim iskustvom; banke nemaju podsticaj da se bave forfetingom jer ove transakcije ne podstiču veći obim saradnje izvoznika sa bankom u drugim oblastima; forfeting je obično oblik finansiranja sa fiksnim kamatnim stopama i upravo ovaj nedostatak fleksibilnosti čini grčke banke skeptičnim i rezervisanim; postoji velika prepreka za razvoj forfetinga u Grčkoj, a to je postojanje Organizacije za osiguranje izvoznih potraživanja (ECIO), što dovodi do konkurencije sa organizacijom u državnom vlasništvu; poteškoće u širenju forfetinga povezane su sa problemima svojstvenim grčkim međunarodnim transakcijama jer više od 60% tih transakcija se obavlja sa besplatnim otpremnim dokumentima, koji su zasnovani na ličnom odnosu dobrog poznavanja stranaka, a ne putem akreditiva.

Zaključak

Razvoj ekonomija zemalja zapadnog Balkana oslanja se na povećanje njihove efikasnosti i učinka na polju industrije, usluga i znanja (Vapa-Tankosić et al., 2013).“U okruženju povećane konkurencije, integracije finansijskih sistema, finansijske krize koja je destabilizovala međunarodno ekonomsko okruženje, postoji više faktora rizika sa kojima se mala i srednja preduzeća susreću u svom poslu“ (Kovačević, Vapa Tankosić, 2017). Za MSP nemogućnost obezbeđivanja potrebnih sredstava, visokorizični i tradicionalno ne-inovativna klima i kultura kod nas otežala je obezbeđivanje likvidnih sredstava (Ožegović et al., 2016). Na primer, ostvaren faktoring promet u 2019. godini u iznosu od 985 miliona evra predstavlja 2,1% procenjenog BDP-a Republike Srbije (45,9 mlrd evra), što je povećanje udela u odnosu na prethodne godine (1,8%), iako je njegovo učešće u BDP-u i dalje veoma nisko u poređenju sa evropskim prosekom (oko 15% BDP), što ukazuje na mogućnost za dalji napredak u razvoju faktoring poslova.

Forfetiranje kao mehanizam finansiranja spoljnotrgovinskih transakcija pokrenuto je u Cirihu, šezdesetih godina XX veka. Ovaj vid korporativnog finansiranja polako se razvijao i utemeljio kao instrument koji omogućava brz i jednostavan prenos prava potraživanja putem prenosa dokumentarnog akreditiva i otkupa menica. Prenos potraživanja u međunarodnoj praksi najčešće se ostvaruje putem sopstvene menice koju izdaje uvoznik i avalira njegova banka, uz stavljanje klauzula ,,bez obaveza", ,,bez regresa" od strane izvoznika, koji uz naknadu ustupa svoje potraživanje. Forfetiranje kao forma finansiranja ima karakteristike finansiranja „poslednjeg utočišta" („*last resort lender*") jer se odobrava i za visoko rizične zemlje za koje se ne može obezbediti drugi izvor finansiranja, ili pokriće osiguranje od komercijalnih i nekomercijalnih rizika. Eskontna stopa se zasniva na LIBORU i marži koja se zaračunava u zavisnosti od rizika, perioda otplate, valute i iznosa koji je uključen u transakciju. Forfeting kompanija koristi dve glavne metode eskontiranja: direktni metod eskontovanja i eskont do prinosa. Iznos eskonta treba da pokrije troškove i zaradu forfetera, što odgovara efektivnoj eskontnoj stopi. Forfeting se najčešće upotrebljava za finansiranje kapitalne robe, ali i za nabavku polovne opreme. Možemo zaključiti da su glavne prednosti forfetiranja za izvoznika: ukupno eliminisanje političkog, komercijalnog rizika, finansijske pozicije dužnika; ukupno eliminisanje rizika valutnih kretanja, fluktuacija kamatne stope i rizika trasfera; pretvaranje prodaje na kredit u gotovinsku transakciju što pobošljava likvidnost i novčani tok; eliminisanje administrativnog troška odobrenja kredita; uklanjanje datog potraživanja iz pasive; finansiranje 100% vrednosti potraživanja (klasični programi osiguranja i finansiranja izvoznih potraživanja finansiraju uglavnom 85% iznosa potraživanja); brzo odgovaranje forfetera na poslat zahtev za forfetiranje konkretne transakcije (obično za 2-3 dana), dok je standardna procedura za odobrenje kreditiranja od strane poslovne banke mnogo duža; dokumentacija je jednostavna i može se brzo pripremiti; vrlo fleksibilan način finansiranja koji se može upotrebiti i za finansiranje izvoza kapitalnih dobara, ali i polovne opreme; izvoznik ima mogućnost da ponudi konkurentno finansiranje svom kupcu (i u zemlji visokog rizika) i po fiksnoj kamatnoj stopi. Osnovne prednosti forfetiranja za uvoznika: na ovaj način ima alternativni pristup finansiranju kada ne može dobiti kreditiranje od strane poslovnih banaka u zemlji; ima mogućnost izbora valute plaćanja i pristup finansiranju po fiksnoj kamatnoj stopi, može da ugovori način otplate i ,,grace" period koji mu najviše odgovara; ne opterećuje postojeći kreditni limit uvoznika kod poslovnih banaka.

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FORFETING AS A MODERN FORM OF FINANCING A COMPANY

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Abstract

Forfeiting technique includes the purchase of outstanding long-term foreign trade receivables that meet certain conditions in terms of maturity and type. In that way, the company has the opportunity to sell to a commercial bank or some other specialized financial body for forfeiting its foreign trade claim, which is not burdened by the possibility of recourse claims of other persons against the buyer of the claim, which is provided by some collateral. Through the forfeiting transaction, the company eliminates possible losses due to illiquidity, risks of rising interest rates in the future, risks based on fluctuating exchange rates, risk based on changes in creditworthiness and financial position of debtors, eliminates administrative problems and associated costs of debt collection. This paper aims to point out the process of applying the forfeiting technique and the discount rate mechanisms depending on the risk, repayment period, currency and the amount of the transaction itself.

Key words: *forfeting, purchase of receivables, financial market.*

Introduction

In addition to factoring, there is another very similar type of parabank business, and that is forfeiting. The term itself comes from the French word “a forfait”, that is the German word “fortaitirung”, both of which mean to "capture" someone’s right. It is about the purchase of medium-term and long-term foreign trade receivables that meet certain conditions in terms of maturity and type. It is desirable that the claims, which are eligible for the forfeiting business, originate from the business of exporting or importing capital goods. Forfeiting is a way of financing individual claims of companies that produce equipment and industrial plants, construction of facilities (according to the “turnkey” system) or performing investment works with deferred payment, if for any other reason, it is not possible to apply some other form of financing. Also forfeiting is an effective mechanism for encouraging exports.

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Forfeiting has recently appeared in Serbia, which includes the purchase of long-term receivables arising from the export business reduced by the appropriate amount, based on the presentation of documents by which the importer guarantees the repayment of debt (Miljković, Miljković, 2011). This paper aims to emphasize the importance of the forfeiting technique as a modern parabank form of corporate financing, as well as to indicate the procedure of applying the forfeiting technique and the discount rate mechanism depending on the risk, repayment period, currency and the amount of the transaction.

Concept of the forfeiting technique

Forfeiting as a form of financing foreign trade transactions began in Zurich after World War II, on the basis of sale of American cereals to Eastern European countries. The forfeiting agreement was first used by Swiss banks during World War II. Its specificity is reflected in the fact that banks or special factoring corporations make advance payments of receivables that are usually of the type of transferable instruments (eg solo and drawn bills of exchange) and take over export receivables without recourse for payment to exporters, in case the importer fails to fulfill the payment (Velentzas et al., 2013). Banks can guarantee the security of the agent's (forfeiter's) claim. A small number of Zurich financial companies that specialized in financing related transactions between Eastern and Western European countries were in a unique position to assess risks in this area. in addition to a rather high premium, they began to discount the bills of exchange of Eastern European importers, making payments in cash to exporters from the USA who were interested in obtaining liquid funds as soon as possible.

During the 1970s, London became a major competitor to Zurich as a center for forfeiture transactions, and receivables that were purchased were more and more coming from importers from developing countries, in order for forfeiture to become important as an instrument of financing trade between industrialized countries. A strong impetus to expanding the role of forfeiting in financing of international trade came with the development of the secondary market for securities and other instruments that include monetary claims (Kapor, 2005). Forfetting transactions can be performed relatively quickly and easily and is usually very profitable. European financiers consider forfeiting transactions to be high-yield and high-risk transactions. Greater risk-taking has taken hold in Europe, where countries typically involved in forfeiting transactions have established good commercial relations and harmonized their foreign trade regulations (Ludwig, Coursey, 1986).

In developed market economies, mechanisms to encourage exports appeared in the mid-1980s, through forfeiting, and experienced full development in the mid-1990s.

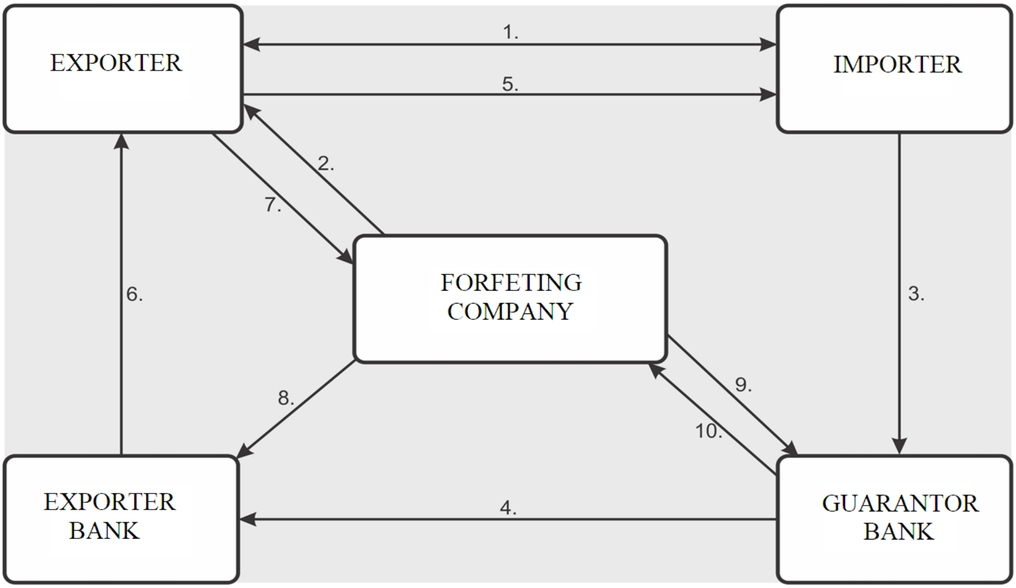
Due to the specificity, complexity and riskiness of these operations (Živković, 2019), special affiliates of banks have been established that perform these operations exclusively, although forfeiting is increasingly appearing as a form of business of specialized forfeiting companies. Forfetting is similar to factoring, but refers to transactions that involve medium-term claims of exporters of capital goods (Chauffour, Farole, 2009). Technically, forfeiting is a special legal transaction that consists of the redemption of outstanding long-term foreign trade receivables (with a repayment period of usually 5-7 years). The conditions under which a forfeiting company provides forfeiting services significantly depend on the creditworthiness of the applicant and the client, as well as on the creditworthiness of the bank that issued the payment instrument (Sedliačiková et al., 2014).

An exporter sells to a bank or some specialized financial body his foreign trade claim, which is not burdened by the possibility of recourse claims of other persons against the buyer of the claim, and which is secured by some of the contractual collateral. Receivables that are forfeited are accompanied by first-class bank security in the form of a guarantee (transferable, abstract), and in that way the forfeiter is protected from risk and can rediscount paper on the secondary market (Mladenović, 2010). "Transactions differ from each other in many respects, according to the amounts, the type of goods financed, the evidence of trade, the timing of the financing and the identity of the contracting parties and the guarantor" (Willsher, 1995).

Waiver of recourse is considered a basic feature of forfeiture in relation to other credit transactions, and thus the transferor of the claim is released from any risk related to the collection of claims and is liable only for the legal existence of the claim. Forfeiting is usually done for receivables ranging from $ 100,000 million, or even $ 500,000 million (Madura, 2008). Export claims based on credit transactions are converted into cash transactions, relieving the exporter's balance sheet from liability and releasing credit lines, which can then be used for other financial purposes (Guild, Harris, 1986).

Forfeiting is a complex mechanism in which four entities can participate (manufacturer-exporter, buyer-importer, buyer-importer bank and forfeiter). The forfeiting contract is concluded by the producer of capital goods with the forfeiter, who sells on the basis of a commercial (commodity) loan. The essence of the forfeiting contract is that the forfeiter, through cession, takes over from the exporter a claim against another person (buyer of goods). The forfeitor accepts the assignment of receivables and pays the net value of transferred receivables to the seller, as his client, less interest, commission and costs related to the forfeiting transaction, whereby the forfeiter undertakes to bear the risk of collection of receivables (i.e. will not request recourse to uncollected receivables from the manufacturer-seller).

Figure 1. Graphic representation of the forfeiting transaction based on the redemption of the bill of exchange receivable



Source: Work of authors

In the graphical representation of the forfeiting transaction (Figure 1) we can identify the steps that follow the mechanism of closing the forfeiting transaction:

1. Concluding a commercial contract;
2. Forfeter provides a written „firm obligation“ to redeem, with the clause „no obligation“, „no recourse“, bills of exchange endorsed by the Importer's Bank;
3. Bills of exchange and a letter of instruction shall be submitted by the importer to his Bank which endorses the bills of exchange;
4. Bills of exchange shall be sent to the Exporting Bank;
5. The exporter delivers the goods to the importer;
6. Delivery of bills of exchange to the exporter;
7. The exporter delivers bills of exchange and documentation to the Forfeiter;
8. Forfeter transfers funds (reduced by discount) to the exporter's account with agreed deduction of interest, commissions and other costs;

9. Upon each maturity, Forfeter submits bills of exchange to the Guarantor Bank for collection on maturity;
10. Upon each maturity of the bill of exchange, the Guarantor Bank pays the nominal value of the bill of exchange to the account of Forfeter.

As stated, transfer of receivables in international practice is usually done through bills of exchange issued by the importer and endorsed by his bank, with clauses „no obligation“, „no recourse“ by the exporter who assigns the claim for a fee. Forfeiture as a form of financing has the characteristics of „last resort lender“ financing for exporters (and importers) because it is also approved for high-risk countries for which no other source of financing or insurance coverage can be provided from (commercial and non-commercial) export risk. There is no obligation for the exporter to entrust all individual operations to a forfeiter. Forfeiting costs can be included in the price of the export job. Forfeiting in secondary markets has a high premium because the risks are usually higher, but a forfeiting company can hedge against risk through hedging techniques in portfolio management (McKibbin and Pistrui, 1997).

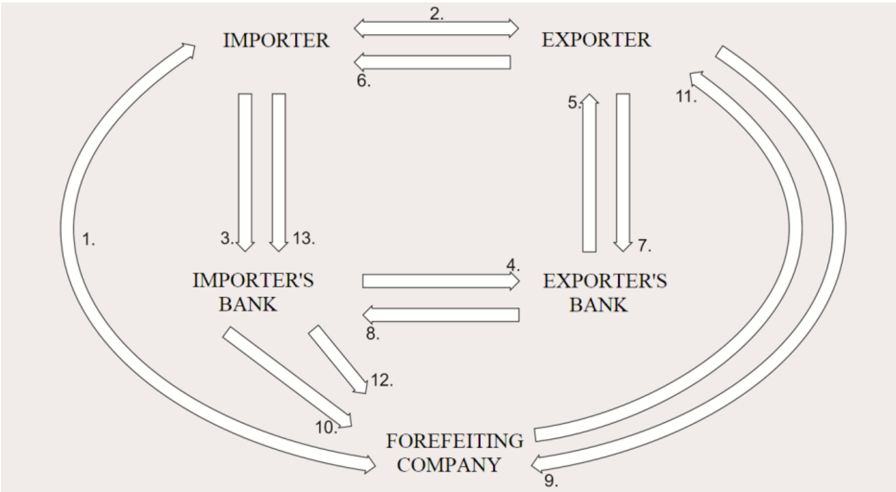
Transfer of the right of claim in forfeiting operations can be realized through cession (where it is only a matter of changing creditors because the previous holder is responsible for claims, but not for their collection) and by transferring documentary letter of credit from exporter to forfeiter (forfeter, on the due date, submits to the letter of credit bank documents confirming that all conditions for payment of the amount have been met, but it is first necessary to obtain the consent of all participants in the letter of credit transaction).

In the graphical representation of the forfeiting transaction (Figure 2) we can identify the steps that follow the mechanism of concluding a forfeiting transaction based on the transfer of documentary credit:

1. The terms of the forfeiting transaction shall be agreed between the exporter and the Forfeiter;
2. A commercial contract is concluded;
3. The importer instructs his bank to issue a documentary letter of credit;
4. A documentary letter of credit is issued to the exporting bank in order to be notified and / or confirmed by the importing bank;
5. The Exporter's Bank shall send a notice of opening a letter of credit to the Exporter;
6. The goods are delivered by the exporter;
7. The exporter presents the documentation of the goods to be shipped to his bank for acceptance;
8. The exporting bank sends the documents to the importer's commercial bank;

9. The Exporter assigns his rights on the basis of the claim in question to Forfeter;
10. The importer's bank accepts the cession;
11. Forfeter discounts the letter of credit and pays the exporter.
12. Upon maturity of the claim, the importer's bank makes a payment to Forfeter.
13. The importer makes a payment to his bank.

Figure 2. Graphic representation of a forfeiting transaction based on the assignment of a documentary letter of credit



Source: Work of authors

Methodological framework of research

The technique of forfeiting as an alternative method of export financing is becoming increasingly important in world financial markets. This paper investigates the mechanism of forfeiting technique as a modern parabank banking form of financing the company's exports and points to the procedure of applying forfeiting technique and discount rate mechanism depending on risk, repayment period, currency and amount of the transaction (Surendranath et al., 2020). The analysis will be based on the descriptive method, the method of comparison, the method of analysis and synthesis and the analysis of secondary data from the available literature on this topic.

Results and Discussion

The discount rate is charged depending on the risk, repayment period, currency and the amount involved in the transaction. Forfeiting companies use two main discounting methods: Straight Discount and Discount to Yield Rate.

According to Jovićević and Vujić (2012), interest deducted from the amount of receivables is called a discount (French „escompte”), so the job itself is called a discount business, and the rate at which interest is calculated discount rate. The amount of the discount should cover the costs and earnings of the forfeiter, which corresponds to the effective discount rate. According to Lütschg-Emmenegger (1998), the direct method of discounting („Straight Discount”) expresses the discount rate as a percentage discounted from the nominal value of receivables in relation to the defined maturity. The discount rate is applied to the nominal value for calculating the present value of receivables without applying the interest rate technique.

$$\text{payable interest / discount} = \frac{p \; x \; Kn \; x \; d}{360 x 100}$$

where: E – discount (interest), K_0 – present value (net value, ie the amount paid after deduction of interest or discount), K_n – future value of receivables (or nominal value of receivables), d - number of days until maturity of receivables, p – discount rate (%), and the discounted value of receivables (discounted amount) is $K_0 = K_n - E$.

Table 1. Discounting a medium-term transaction with different maturities and unequal amounts

Interest rate			7.5% p.a. (straight discount)		
Grace period			5 days		
Nominal value / future value of receivables			USD 1,020,000		
Amount (in USD)			Maturity		
150,000			15/06/17		
120,000			28/02/18		
750,000			10/05/18		
50,000			31/10/18		
Number of bills of exchange			4		
Currency			USD		
Date of acceptance of the obligation			2/06/17		
Availability date of the bill of exchange			2/06/17		
Discount rate % p. a.			7,5% p. a. straight discount (straight discount)		
Method of interest calculation			365/360		
DETAILS OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE					
No.	**Maturity**	**Days**	**Nominal value**	**Discount amount**	**Net worth**
1.	15/6/17 +1	14	150,000.00	437.50	149,562.50
2.	28/2/18 +2	273	120,000.00	6,825.00	113,175.00
3.	10/5/18 +1	343	750,000.00	53,593.75	696,406.25
4.	31/10/18 +2	518	50,000.00	5,395.83	44,604.17
			1,070,000.00	**66,252.08**	**1,003,747.92**

Source: Author’s calculation

For Illustration purposes, Table 1 contains a set of bills of exchange with different maturities and unequal amounts of medium-term transactions is given, adapted according to Lütschg-Emmenegger (1998).

The direct method of discounting is calculated on the basis of the nominal value to achieve the net value, therefore the future or nominal value of receivables - interest (discount) = current or net value of receivables (Vukša & Pantić, 2020). While an example of using the straight discount method for a medium-term transaction with different maturities and unequal amounts is given in Table 1, the discounting of a medium-term transaction with 10 semi-annual installments, equal principal amounts and regular six-month maturities is shown in Table 2, adjusted according to Lütschg-Emmenegger (1998).

Table 2. Discounting a medium-term transaction with 10 semi-annual installments, equal amounts of principal and regular six-month maturities

Interest rate			7,5% p. a. (straight discount)		
Grace period			5 days		
Nominal value of receivables			US $ 1,000,000		
Number of bills of exchange			10		
Currency			US $		
Date of acceptance of the obligation			2/07/17		
Availability date of bills of exchange			2/07/17		
Discount rate % p. a.			7,5% p.a. straight discount		
Method of interest calculation			365/360		
DETAILS OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE					
No.	**Maturity**	**Days**	**Nominal value**	**Discount amount**	**Net worth**
1.	2/01/18	184	100,000.00	3,833.33	96,166.67
2.	2/07/18	365	100,000.00	7,604.17	92,395.83
3.	2/01/19+2	551	100,000.00	11,479.17	88,520.83
4.	2/07/19	730	100,000.00	15,208.33	84,791.67
5.	2/01/20+1	915	100,000.00	19,062.50	80,937.50
6.	2/07/20+1	1.097	100,000.00	22,854.17	77,145.83
7.	2/01 /21	1.280	100,000.00	26,666.67	73,333.33
8.	2/07/21	1.461	100,000.00	30,437.50	69,562.50
9.	2/01/22	1.645	100,000.00	34,270.83	65,729.17
10.	2/07/22	1.826	100,000.00	38,041.67	61,958.33
			1,000,000.00	**209,458.34**	**790,541.66**

Source: Author's calculation

Discount to Yield Rate forms the basis for calculating the discount rate and expresses the discount rate as the interest expense on an annual basis. The discount rate is the yield that the present value of the receivable will reach when it reaches its future (nominal) value of the receivable on the maturity date.

$$\text{Divizor} = \left(\frac{p\ x\ d}{360x100}\right) + 1$$

Discounted value of the bill $K_0 = Kn$ / Divisor

The calculation of the direct discount is much simpler (due to the simple calculation of interest), as opposed to the calculation of the yield discount (due to the application of interest).

Example of calculation by econt method to yield rate

Future value of receivables / Nominal value = USD 1,000,000; number of days 548 days; Discount rate 10% p.a .; semi-annual interest

a) divisor calculation:

i) first period (first half of the year) $\left(\frac{10 \text{ x } 183}{360x100}\right) + 1 = 1.0508333$

ii) second period (second half of the year) $\left(\frac{10 \text{ x } 182}{360x100}\right) + 1 = 1.0505555$

iii) third period (third half of the year) $= \left(\frac{10 \text{ x } 183}{360x100}\right) + 1 = 1.0508333$

b) calculation of present value (for the first three maturities of bills of exchange from Table 3):

i) US$100,000 / 1.050833 = US$ 95,162.57

ii) US$95,162.57 / 1.0505555 = US$ 90,583.09

iii) US$90,583.09 / 1.0508333 = US$ 86,201.20

For the sake of illustration, an example of a set of bills of exchange is applied using the method of discount to yield with semi - annual interest in *Table 3*.

Table 3. Discount to yield with semi-annual interest

Interest rate			10% p. a. (discount to yield (semi - annual interest))		
Grace period			0 days		
Nominal value of receivables			US $ 1,000000		
Number of days to maturity			in 10 semi-annual installments		
Average repayment period			2.75 years		
Number of bills of exchange			10		
Currency			US $		
Date of acceptance of the obligation			2/06/17		
Availability date of bills of exchange			2/06/17		
Discount rate % p. a.			10% p. a. (discount to yield (semi - annual interest))		
Method of interest calculation			365/360		
DETAILS OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE					
No.	**Maturity**	**Days**	**Nominal value**	**Discount amount**	**Net worth**
1.	2/12/18	183	100,000.00	4,837.43	95,162.57
2.	2/06/18	365	100,000.00	9,416.91	90,583.09
3.	2/12/18	548	100,000.00	13,798.80	86,201.20
4.	2/06/19	730	100,000.00	17,947.04	82,052.96
5.	2/12/19	913	100,000.00	21,916.29	78,083.71
6.	2/06/20	1.096	100,000.00	25,694.53	74,305.47
7.	2/12/20 +2	1.281	100,000.00	29,328.26	70,671.74
8.	2/06/21 +2	1.463	100,000.00	32,729.17	67,270.83
9.	2/12/21 +1	1.645	100,000.00	35,965.58	64,034.42
10.	2/06/22 +1	1.827	100,000.00	39,047.09	60,952.91
			1,000,000,00	**230,681.10**	**769,318.90**

Source: Author’s calculation

A comparative presentation of straight discount and discount to yield (calculated semi-annually), adjusted according to Lütschg-Emmenegger (1998), is shown in Table 4. We can see that the net value of the bill of exchange differs, i.e. that its value is higher if we apply the econt method to yield.

Table 4. Comparative presentation of direct discount and discount to yield (calculated semi-annually)

STRAIGHT DISCOUNT METHOD					
Interest rate			10% p.a.		
Grace period			5 days		
Nominal value of receivables			US $ 1.000.000		
Number of days to maturity			5 years („bullet repayment“)		
Number of bills of exchange			1		
Currency			US $		
Availability date of bills of exchange			2/06/17		
Datum raspoloživosti menica			2/06/17		
Grace period			5 days		
Discount rate % p. a.			10% p. a. straight discount		
Method of interest calculation			365/360		
DETAILS OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE					
No.	**Maturity**	**Days**	**Nominal value**	**Discount amount**	**Net worth**
1.	2/06/22 +1	1.832	1,000,000.00	508,888.89	491,111.11
			1,000,000.00	**508,888.89**	**491,111.11**
DISCOUNT TO YIELD METHOD (SEMI - ANNUAL INTEREST RATE)					
Interest rate			10% p. a.		
Grace period			5 years		
Nominal value of receivables			US $ 1.000.000		
Number of days to maturity			5 years („bullet repayment”)		
Number of bills of exchange			1		
Currency			US $		
Availability date of bills of exchange			2/06/17		
Datum raspoloživosti menica			2/06/17		
Grace period			5 dana		
Discount rate % p. a.			10% p.a. (discount to yield, semi-annual interest)		
Method of interest calculation			365/360		
DETAILS OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE					
No.	**Maturity**	**Days**	**Nominal value**	**Discount amount**	**Net worth**
1.	2/06/22 +1	1.832	1,000,000.00	391,315.79	608,684.21
			1,000,000.00	**391,315.79**	**608,684.21**

Source: Author’s calculation

Discount rate of the forfeiter will depend on the risk of the transaction in question (country risk, commercial transaction risk, interest rate risk and the length of the commitment period) and will be expressed in Euribor or LIBOR (Bishop, 2004) for the relevant currency and term to which the margin of the fofeter will be added. In addition, the forfeiter will charge a commitment fee, which is charged for the period from the time the forfeiter undertakes to forfeit for a particular transaction until the day when the receivables are effectively repurchased. In cases where the forfeiter engages (reserves) funds for a certain period, and the forfeiting transaction is not realized, i.e. if the exporter does not conclude or cannot realize the contract, a penalty payment of up to 2% of the value of the claim may be provided. There are also special fees („special fees", „handling fee", „documentation fee") which are charged depending on the specifics of each transaction. The forfeiting agreement is not regulated in comparative law, but is a product of banking and business practice. It is subject to the rules of autonomous international trade law, general business conditions, standard contracts, as well as the relevant norms of trade and contract law of the country whose law would be applicable (Shogorov, 2004). When it comes to forfeiting transactions and when the buyer is in high-risk countries, forfeiters insist on standard texts of unconditional and irrevocable guarantees, and confirm the guarantor's bank that payment will be made on time, as well as delivery of official authorized signatories (Rongrong, 2020). The exporter is required to provide a written statement confirming that he has fulfilled all contractual obligations.

Basic benefit for the importer is that he can get up to 100% financing of the import of goods through forfeiting, just when other usual sources of funds are not available to him. Financing can also be at a fixed interest rate. Forfeiting is a flexible way to offer an exporter / importer options in terms of currency choice, maturity dates and "grace" periods. The documents to be provided to the exporter are standardized. On the other hand, the importer must be willing to pay a slightly higher price for the products he imports, because that price mainly includes forfeiture costs that most exporters, depending on their negotiating position, try to pass on to the importer. The importer should also pay the bank's commission for avalizing the bill of exchange or issuing a letter of credit (or guarantee). According to Kapor (2005), the main advantage for a forfeiter is that he can earn relatively more through this transaction than when it comes to classic commercial loans of the same maturity and risk. Transactions are realized quickly, and documentation is easily and quickly processed. Forfeter bears all risks related to changes in exchange rates and interest rates. The forfeiter must be very familiar with all regulations regarding bills of exchange (solo and drawn bills of exchange), letters of credit and guarantees in the country of the importer, as well as check the creditworthiness of the guarantor. By forfeiting the transaction, the company eliminates possible losses due to illiquidity, risks of rising interest rates in the future, risks based on fluctuating exchange rates, risk based on changes in creditworthiness and financial status of debtors, eliminates administrative problems and associated costs of debt collection. The benefits of forfeiture for the exporter are very significant because in this way the sale of capital goods on credit is converted into a cash transaction, which accelerates faster capital turnover, improves liquidity and increases the potential for future borrowing. By forfeiting the transaction, the company eliminates possible losses due to illiquidity, risks of rising interest rates in the future, risks based on fluctuating exchange rates, risk based on changes in creditworthiness and financial status of debtors, eliminates administrative problems and associated costs of debt collection. The possibility of quickly concluding a forfeiting contract due to simple documentation is important.

However, in addition to the above advantages, some countries also face difficulties in using forfeiting in practice. According to the author Kyrmizoglou (2016), the Greek structure of national production (service sector 80.6%, industry 16% and agriculture 3.4%) indicates a weak position of the manufacturing sector. The fact that the vast majority of industrial production in Greece consists of consumer goods, affects the insufficient potential for concluding forfeiting deals. Kyrmizoglou (2016) also highlights additional reasons that have caused difficulties in expanding forfeiting transactions in Greece: forfeiting transactions require narrowly specialized staff with many years of experience; banks have no incentive to engage in forfeiting because these transactions do not encourage greater cooperation of exporters with the bank in other areas; forfeiting is usually a form of financing with fixed interest rates and it is this lack of flexibility that makes Greek banks skeptical and reserved; there is a major obstacle to the development of forfeiting in Greece, namely the existence of the Export Claims Insurance Organization (ECIO), which leads to competition with the state-owned organization; difficulties in spreading forfeiting are related to the problems inherent in Greek international transactions, as more than 60% of these transactions are carried out with free shipping documents, which are based on a personal relationship of good knowledge of the parties and not by letter of credit.

Conclusion

Development of Western Balkan economies relies on increasing their efficiency and performance in the field of industry, services and knowledge (Vapa-Tankosić et al., 2013). „In an environment of increased competition, integration of financial systems, financial crisis that has destabilized the international economic environment, there are several risk factors that small and medium enterprises face in their work" (Kovačević, Vapa Tankosić, 2017). For SMEs, the inability to provide the necessary funds, high-risk and traditionally non-innovative climate and culture in our country has made it difficult to provide liquid funds (Ožegović et al., 2016). For example, the realized factoring turnover in 2019 in the amount of EUR 985 million represents 2.1% of the estimated GDP of the Republic of Serbia (EUR 45.9 billion), which is an increase in the share compared to previous years (1.8%), although its share in GDP is still very low compared to the European average (around 15% of GDP), which indicates the possibility of further progress in the development of factoring.

Forfeiture as a mechanism for financing foreign trade transactions was initiated in Zurich in the 1960s. This type of corporate financing has slowly developed and established itself as an instrument that enables quick and easy transfer of receivables through transfer of documentary credit and purchase of bills of exchange. In international practice, transfer of receivables is usually done through its own bill of exchange issued by the importer and endorsed by his bank, with clauses „no obligations", „no recourse" by the exporter, who assigns his claim for a fee. Forfeiture as a form of financing has the characteristics of "last resort lender" financing because it is also approved for high-risk countries for which no other source of financing can be provided, or to cover insurance against commercial and non-commercial risks. The discount rate is based on LIBOR and the margin charged depending on the risk, repayment period, currency and the amount involved in the transaction. The forfeiting company uses two main discounting methods: the direct discounting method and the yield discount. The amount of the discount should cover the costs and earnings of the forfeiter, which corresponds to the effective discount rate. Forfeiting is most often used to finance capital goods, but also to purchase used equipment.

We can conclude that the main advantages of forfeiture for the exporter are: total elimination of political, commercial risk, financial position of the debtor; total elimination of currency movement risks, interest rate fluctuations and transfer risks; converting sales on credit into a cash transaction that improves liquidity and cash flow; eliminating the administrative cost of approving a loan; removal of a given receivable from liabilities; financing 100% of the value of receivables (classic insurance and export receivables financing programs finance mainly 85% of the amount of receivables); quick response of the forfeiter to the sent request for forfeiting of a specific transaction (usually in 2-3 days), while the standard procedure for approving a loan by a commercial bank is much longer; the documentation is simple and can be prepared quickly; a very flexible way of financing that can be used to finance the export of capital goods, but also used equipment; the exporter has the opportunity to offer competitive financing to its buyer (even in a high-risk country) at a fixed interest rate. The main advantages of forfeiting for the importer: in this way he has an alternative approach to financing when he cannot get credit from commercial banks in the country, has the possibility to choose the payment currency and access to financing at a fixed interest rate, can agree on the method of repayment and the „grace" period that suits him best; does not burden the existing credit limit of importers with commercial banks.

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MAKROEKONOMSKO OKRUŽENJE I JAVNI SEKTOR – MESTO I ULOGA

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Apstrakt

U većini savremenih država preovlađuju socijaldemokratski pristup i liberalni pristup o mestu javnog sektora u upravljanju državom i društveno-ekonomskom razvoju, čime je uloga javnog sektora u privrednim aktivnostima proizvodnog tipa značajno umanjena, tako da danas javni sektor najvećim delom obuhvata društvene delatnosti, odnosno društvenu nadgradnju proizvodnih aktivnosti. Bez obzira na ideološki pristup, javni sektor nepobitno predstavlja najznačajniji činilac države, od čije efikasnosti i učinkovitosti zavisi stepen izgrađenosti ekonomsko-pravnog ambijenta kao osnovnog preduslova razvoja društva, kao i razvijenosti sistema društvenih delatnosti.

Ključne reči: *makroekonomsko okruženje, javni sektor, društvene delatnosti, efikasnost.*

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Uvod

U kontekstu ekonomske uloge, javni sektor se može definisati kao "institucionalni sistem ekonomskog angažovanja države, dok je njegov određujući podsektor državni budžet" (Vigvari i dr., 2003). Drugim rečima, javni sektor čini sistem institucionalnih jedinica koje direktno ili indirektno nalaze pod kontrolom države. Pri tom se institucionalna jedinica definiše kao ekonomski subjekat koji poseduje

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sopstvenu imovinu, preuzima obaveze i učestvuju u ekonomskim aktivnostima i transakcijama sa drugim ekonomskim subjektima.

Veličina i efikasnost javnog sektora, kao dva najznačajnija parametara uloge javnog sektora u društveno-ekonomskom sistemu jedne zemlje, predstavljaju predmet brojnih stručnih, naučnih i političkih studija i debata. Istorijski posmatrano, javni sektor nastaje u fazi razvoja društvene zajednice u kojoj dolazi do razdvajanja političke moći vladajućeg političkog establišmenta na dve nezavisne celine - zakonodavnu vlast i upravnu vlast, što je proces koji se u najrazvijenijim kapitalističkim državama odigrao u 19. veku. Razvoj javnog sektora u prethodnom stoleću je u velikoj meri zavisio od društveno-ekonomskog uređenja, odnosno od sistema i načina upravljanja državom.

Makroekonomski sektori

U širem makroekonomskom kontekstu, institucionalne jedinice po funkcionalnom principu (prema aktivnosti i funkciji koju obavljaju) grupišu se u pet nacionalnih sektora na sledeći način(Sektorska klasifikacija institucionalnih jedinica, 2018).

U okviru postojećih nacionalnih sektora, mogu se definisati i institucionalni podsektori. Svaki od sektora i podsektora čine grupe institucionalnih jedinica koje imaju sličnu vrstu ekonomskog ponašanja, tako da se grupisanje u sektore vrši na osnovu vrste proizvodnje i osnovne delatnosti i funkcije institucionalne jedinice, dok podela na podsektore omogućava precizniji opis ekonomskog ponašanja institucionalnih jedinica unutar datog sektora.

Slika 1. Institucionalni sektori nacionalne ekonomije

Izvor: Zavod za statistiku Crne Gore. Obračun bruto domaćeg proizvoda po institucionalnim sektorima za period 2010 - 2011 god. prema metodologiji Sistema nacionalnih računa

Osnovno ekonomsko obeležje sektora države jeste netržišni karakter proizvodnje dobara i usluga institucionalnih jedinica, to jest da bi institucionalna jedinica bila klasifikovana u državni sektor mora da ispunjava neki od sledećih kriterijuma (Đokić, 2018).

da je uspostavljena pravnim postupkom sa zakonodavnom, izvršnom i sudskom vlašću nad drugim jedinicama na ekonomskoj teritoriji zemlje koje obezbeđuju netržišna dobra i usluge namenjene zajednici;

da je predstavlja privredno društva čija je proizvodnja pretežno netržišna i pod kontrolom države;

da je neprofitna institucija u statusu nezavisnog pravnog subjekta čija je proizvodnja pretežno netržišna i pod kontrolom države;

da ima status samostalnog fonda koji se pretežno finansira zakonskom obavezom uplate doprinosa, kojim upravlja država u pogledu određivanja i odobravanja doprinosa i davanja.

Institucionalne jedinice javnog sektora

Kada su u pitanju privredna društva (Mićović, Miletić, 2019; Mitrović & Mitrović, 2019), kao što je već rečeno njihovo sektorsko razvrstavanje se zasniva na kriterijumu kontrole, gde se kontrola definiše kao sposobnost utvrđivanja opšte politike poslovnog subjekta. Pojam kontrole se tradicionalno vezuje za vlasništvo, ali u širem jedna institucija može efektivno kontrolisati drugu čak i ako nema većinsko vlasništvo ukoliko ima alternativne mehanizme uticaja. smislu Institucionalna jedinica iz sektora nefinansijskih ili finansijskih društava se smatra javnim privrednim društvom, a samim tim i delom javnog sektora, ukoliko je ispunjen jedan ili vise od sledećih uslova (Simić, Teuta, Yang, 2019): 1) ako država ima većinsko vlasništvo akcija sa pravom glasa ili poseduje “zlatnu” akciju, 2) ako država ima kontrolu nad organima upravljanja, imenovanjem i razrešenjem rukovodećeg kadra i ključnim odborima u društvu, 3) ako postoje posebni propisi, 4) ako je država figuriše kao glavni kupac ili kreditor privrednog društva(Afanasyeva et al., 2020).

Na osnovu prethodnih definicija pojma društvenih delatnosti i obuhvata javnog sektora, kao i relevantnih institucionalnih sektora i podsektora, može se konstatovati da sistem društvenih delatnosti u savremenoj tržišnoj ekonomiji najvećim delom korespondira obuhvatu državnog sektora(Azofra et al., 2020), iz kojeg su isključena javna preduzeća koja pod kontrolom jedinica države na centralnom i lokalnom nivou vlasti.

Društvene delatnosti i javni sektor

Da bi društvene delatnosti ispunile svoju osnovnu ulogu zadovoljavanja zajedničkih društvenih potreba, neophodno je da javni sektor funkcioniše efikasno, odnosno da obezbedi zadovoljavajući kvalitet proizvoda i usluga uz najniže moguće društvene troškove. Samim tim što javni sektor neke države funkcioniše efikasnije, to će kvalitet usluga koje se pružaju njenim građanima biti veći a njihova cena (merena fiskalnim izdacima) manja. (Panić i dr., 2018) Efikasnost se u tehničko-proizvodnom smislu definiše kao proizvodnja određenog nivoa autputa uz minimalne moguće troškove, odnosno maksimalno mogućeg autputa za dati nivo proizvodnih troškova, iz čega proizilazi da je za ocenu efikasnosti nekog društvenog entiteta neophodno izračunati njegove troškove, rezultate i kao ključnu stvar odnos troškova i rezultata(Majstorović i dr., 2020). Međutim, u realnosti nije jednostavno utvrditi da li je odnos troškova i rezultata optimalan bez postojanja adekvatnog repera za poređenje. Kada su u pitanju pojedinačni entiteti, kao reper za utvrđivanje efikasnosti se može koristiti prosečni odnos rezultata i troškova za ukupnu delatnost u kojoj dati entitet posluje, a moguće je kao reper uzeti i entitet koji ima najpovoljniji odnos rezultata i troškova unutar date delatnosti.(Ćemalović, 2016; Ilić, 2019) Ovaj pristup nije moguće primeniti na javni sektor kao celinu, imajući u vidu da unutar nacionalne ekonomije ne postoji reper za poređenje rezultata i troškova (efikasnost javnog sektora i privatnog sektora nisu uporedivi s obzirom da se privatni sektor rukovodi profitabilnošću poslovanja na tržištu). Zbog toga se analiza javnog sektora neke države kao celine uobičajeno analizira u poređenju sa efikasnošću javnih sektora uporedivih zemalja. U ovom slučaju, efikasnost bi se prikazivala kao odnos između troškova i rezultata u nekoj zemlji u odnosu na druge zemlje. Ukoliko su rezultati u datoj zemlji bolji, uz iste ili manje troškove, smatra se da je ta zemlja efikasnija(Avakumović, Tešić & Karić, 2021).

Efikasnost javnog sektora

Neefikasni javni sektor pruža svoje usluge po većim društvenim troškovima nego što je to opravdano, koji se mere javnim rashodima. Implikacije neefikasnog javnog sektora na makroekonomske performanse zemlje su višestruko negativne:

Viši javni rashodi se moraju kompenzovati većim javnim prihodima, što podrazumeva veći poreski obuhvat i poresko opterećenje domaćinstava i privatnih preduzeća. Posledično, veće poresko opterećenje se manifestuje kroz smanjenje trenutnog dohotka poreskih obveznika koji čine građani i privreda (Gajić, 2014; Ivanova & Ristić, 2020).

U slučaju da se kompenzacija visokih javnih rashoda odlaže za budućnost, dolazi do nastajanja visokih fiskalnih deficita koji se vremenom akumuliraju i povećavaju javni dug zemlje, što dugoročno finansijski destabilizuje zemlju a može dovesti i do državnog bankrota(Verstraete, 2020; Xing & Yang, 2020).

Drugi aspekt optimizacije veličine i strukture javnog sektora predstavlja njegovu učinkovitost, odnosno efektivnost. Za razliku od efikasnosti koja meri da javni sektor radi na optimalan način, predmet analize efektivnosti jeste učinkovitost javnog sektora u obavljanju društvenih i komercijalnih delatnosti(Đuzelić, 2016). Prilikom analize učinkovitosti javnog sektora, jedna od stvari koju je poželjno uzeti u obzir jeste razlika između proizvoda i usluga koje proizvode i distribuiraju jedinice javnog sektora i krajnjeg ishoda koji ovi proizvodi imaju na društvo. Primera radi, u obrazovanju proizvod javnog sektora predstavlja usluga obrazovanja koja se može meriti stopom upisa u školu, prosečnim brojem učenika itd. S druge strane, krajnji ishod angažovanja javnog sektora u obrazovanju se manifestuje kroz opšti nivo obrazovanja učenika, koji se može meriti uspehom učenika na standardizovanim međunarodnim testovima.(Gajić, 2014)

Zaključak

Javni sektor predstavlja sredstvo kojim svaka države deluje na najznačajnija područja zajedničkog rada i aktivnosti svih njenih građana. Krajnji cilj postojanja javnog sektora predstavlja zadovoljenje potreba šire društvene zajednice, odnosno zaštita interesa i prava pojedinaca koji čine društvenu zajednicu.

Kao što je već napomenuto, nivo aktivnosti države u društvenim i komercijalnim delatnostima varira u zavisnosti od političkog sistema. U demokratskim društvima, nadležnosti javnog sektora predstavlja problem čisto političke prirode, odnosno predstavlja proizvod političke volje one grupacije kojoj je većina glasača poverila poverenje u izbornom procesu. Međutim, i u državama sa najdužim demokratskim tradicijama su prisutni razni oblici lobiranja zbog čega je moguće da državna potrošnja bude alocirana i tamo gde to nije u interesu javnosti.

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MACROECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT AND THE PUBLIC SECTOR - PLACE AND ROLE

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Abstract

In most modern countries, the social democratic and liberal approaches prevail on the place of the public sector in state management and socio-economic development, which significantly reduces the role of the public sector in production activities, so the public sector today largely encompasses social activities, i.e. socially upgrading production activities. Regardless of the ideological approach, the public sector is undeniably the most important factor of the state, on whose efficiency and effectiveness the degree of economic and legal environment as a basic prerequisite for the development of society and the development of social activities depends.

Key words: macroecnomic environment, public sector, social activities, efficiency.

Introduction

In the context of the economic role, the public sector can be defined as "the institutional system of economic engagement of the state, while its defining subsector is the state budget" (Vigvari et al., 2003). In other words, the public sector is a system of institutional units that are directly or indirectly under state control. The institutional unit is defined as an economic entity that owns its own assets, assumes liabilities and participates in economic activities and transactions with other economic entities.

Size and efficiency of the public sector, as the two most important parameters of the role of the public sector in the socio-economic system of a country, are the subject of numerous professional, scientific and political studies and debates. Historically, the public sector emerged in the development phase of a social community in which the political power of the ruling political

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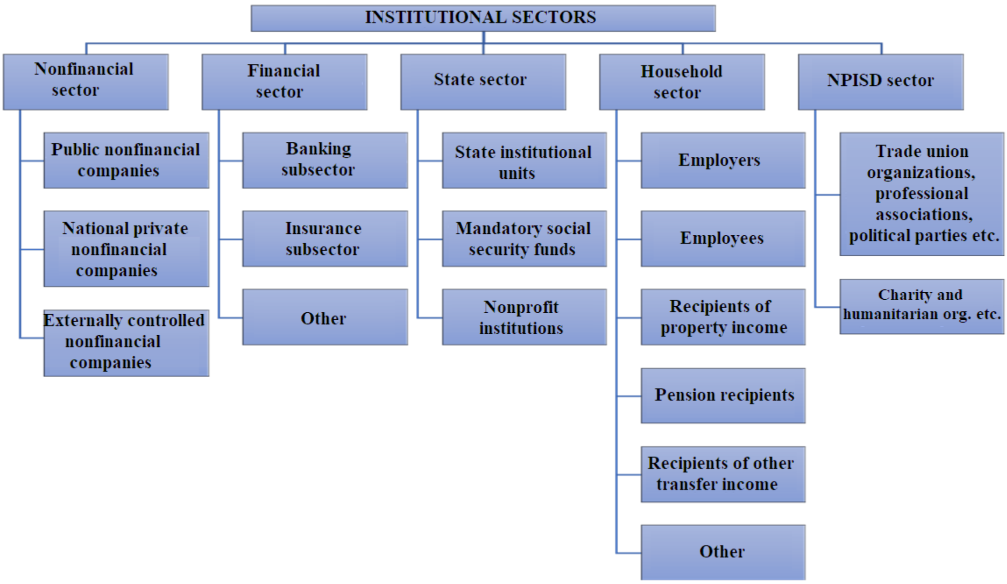
establishment split into two independent entities - the legislature and the administrative branch, a process that took place in the most developed capitalist countries in the 19th century. The development of the public sector in the previous century largely depended on the socio-economic system, i.e. on the system and manner of governing the state.

Macroeconomic sectors

In the broader macroeconomic context, institutional units by functional principle (according to the activity and function they perform) are grouped into five national sectors as follows (Sectoral Classification of Institutional Units, 2018).

Within the existing national sectors, institutional sub-sectors can also be defined. Each of the sectors and subsectors consist of groups of institutional units that have a similar type of economic behavior, so that grouping into sectors is done based on the type of production and basic activity and function of the institutional unit, while division into subsectors allows more precise description of economic behavior of institutional units. Figure 1 shows the institutional sectors and subsectors that make up a country's national economy.

Figure 1. Institutional sectors of the national economy



Source: Statistical Office of Montenegro. Calculation of GDP by institutional sectors for the period from 2010-2011, according to methodology of the System of National Accounts

Basic economic feature of the state sector is the non-market character of the production of goods and services of institutional units, that is, in order for an institutional unit to be classified in the state sector, it must meet some of the following criteria (Đokić, 2018):

- That it is established by legal procedure with legislative, executive and judicial power over other units in the economic territory of the country that provide non-market goods and services intended for the community;
- That it represents a company whose production is predominantly non-market and under state control;
- That the non-profit institution has the status of an independent legal entity whose production is predominantly non-market and under state control;
- to have the status of an independent fund which is mainly financed by contributions who are legally obliged to pay, which is managed by the state in terms of determining and approving contributions and giving.

Institutional units of the public sector

When it comes to companies (Mićović, Miletić, 2019; Mitrović & Mitrović, 2019), their sectoral classification is based on the criterion of control, where control is defined as the ability to determine the general policy of the business entity. The notion of control is traditionally associated with ownership, but more broadly one institution can effectively control another even if it does not have majority ownership if it has alternative mechanisms of influence. In this sense, an institutional unit from the sector of non-financial or financial companies is considered a public company, and thus part of the public sector, if one or more of the following conditions are met (Simić, Teuta, Yang, 2019): 1) if the state has a majority ownership of voting shares or a “golden” share, 2) if the state has control over the governing bodies, appointment and dismissal of management and key boards in the company, 3) if there are special regulations, 4) if the state appears as the main buyer or creditor of the company (Afanasyeva et al., 2020).

Based on previous definitions of the concept of social activities and the scope of the public sector, as well as relevant institutional sectors and subsectors, it can be concluded that the system of social activities in the modern market economy largely corresponds to the scope of the public sector (Azofra et al., 2020), from which public enterprises controlled by state units at the central and local levels of government are excluded.

Social actvities and the public sector

In order for social activities to fulfill their basic role of meeting common social needs, it is necessary for the public sector to function efficiently, i.e. to ensure satisfactory quality of products and services at the lowest possible social costs. As the public sector of a country functions more efficiently, the quality of services provided to its citizens will be higher and their price (measured by fiscal expenditures) lower (Panić et al, 2018). In the technical-production sense, efficiency is defined as the production of a certain level of output with minimum possible costs, i.e. the maximum possible output for a given level of production costs, which means that, in order to assess the efficiency of a social entity it is necessary to calculate its costs, results and as a key issues the relationship between costs and results (Majstorović et al., 2020). However, in reality it is not easy to determine whether the cost-benefit ratio is optimal without the existence of an adequate benchmark for comparison. When it comes to individual entities, the average ratio of results and costs for the total activity in which a given entity operates can be used as a benchmark for determining efficiency, and it is possible to take as an benchmark the entity with the most favorable ratio of results and costs within a given activity (Ćemalović, 2016; Ilić, 2019). This approach cannot be applied to the public sector as a whole, given that within the national economy there is no benchmark for comparing results and costs (public sector and private sector efficiencies are not comparable given that the private sector is driven by market profitability). Therefore, the analysis of the public sector of a country as a whole is usually analyzed in comparison with the efficiency of the public sectors of comparable countries. In this case, efficiency would be presented as the ratio between costs and results in one country compared to other countries. If the results in a given country are better, with same or lower costs, it is considered that the country is more efficient (Avakumović, Tešić, Karić, 2021).

Public sector efficiency

An inefficient public sector provides its services at higher social costs than justified, as measured by public expenditure. The implications of an inefficient public sector on a country's macroeconomic performance are negative manifold:

Higher public expenditures must be offset by higher public revenues, which implies higher tax coverage and tax burden on households and private enterprises. Consequently, a greater tax burden is manifested through a reduction in the current income of taxpayers made up of citizens and the economy (Gajić, 2014; Ivanova, Ristić, 2020).

If the compensation of high public expenditures is postponed for the future, there are high fiscal deficits that accumulate over time and increase the country's public debt, which in the long run financially destabilizes the country and can lead to bankruptcy (Verstraete, 2020; Xing & Yang, 2020).

Another aspect of optimizing the size and structure of the public sector is its effectiveness. Unlike efficiency, which measures the public sector to work in an optimal way, the subject of effectiveness analysis is the efficiency of the public sector in performing social and commercial activities (Đuzelić, 2016). When analyzing the performance of the public sector, one of the things that is desirable to consider is the difference between products and services produced and distributed by public sector units and the end result that these products have on society. For example, in education, the product of the public sector is an education service that can be measured by enrollment rate, average number of students, etc. On the other hand, the final outcome of public sector engagement in education is manifested through general level of student education, which can be measured by student success in standardized international tests (Gajić, 2014).

Conclusion

The public sector represents an asset by which each state acts in the most important areas of joint work and activities of all its citizens. The ultimate goal of the existence of the public sector is to meet the needs of the wider community, i.e. to protect the interests and rights of individuals who make up the community.

As already mentioned, the level of state activity in social and commercial activities varies depending on the political system. In democratic societies, the competencies of the public sector represent a problem of a purely political nature, i.e. it is a product of the political will of the group to which the majority of voters have entrusted their trust in the election process. However, even in countries with longest democratic traditions, various forms of lobbying are present, which is why it is possible for state spending to be allocated even where it is not in the public interest.

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KOMPARATIVNA ANALIZA EFEKTA EVAZIJE POREZA PREKO PORESKIH RAJEVA

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Rezime

Sagledavanjem najpoznatijih poreskih rajeva današnjice, pažnju usmeravamo na istraživanje kojim će se uvideti stvarni problemi i uticaj poreskih rajeva na evaziju poreza. Za navedeno istraživanje koristićemo komparativnu analizu u kojoj će biti uključen poreski sistem zemalja EU i zemalja poreskih rajeva.

U svim modernim državama porez na dohodak građana i porez na dobit predstavljaju jedan od najsigurnijih izvora prihoda državnog budžeta. Najznačajniji direktni porezi su porez na dohodak građana (porez) i porez na dobit (porez na dobit).

Ključne reči: *evazija poreza, efekti poreskih rajeva, kompanije.*

JEL: *H26*

Uvod

Sve države članice EU i većina drugih zemalja sveta oporezuju dobit kompanije. Kritičari korporativnog poreza na dobit ističu da oporezivanje dobiti nije u skladu sa osnovnim stavom svake nacionalne ekonomije u kojoj ističu da preduzeća igraju odlučujuću ulogu u postizanju ekonomskog razvoja.

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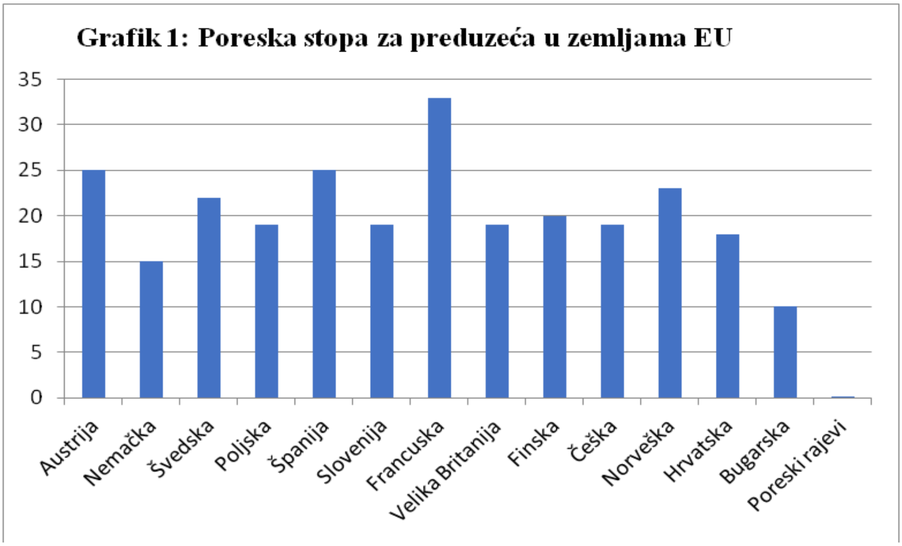
Poreski obveznici pokušavaju što je više moguće olakšati svoj poreski teret, bez obzira da li posluju na nacionalnom, ili međunarodnom nivou iz razloga što je cilj svake kompanije ostvarivanje što veće koristi iz poslovanja(Mihajlović & Jeremić, 2020).

Konkretno, plaćanje poreza na dobit znači ili povećanje cena ili smanjenje troškova rada i kapitala(Popov, 2011). Međutim, oni koji opravdavaju oporezivanje korporacije ističu da su to u stvari plaćanja javnih usluga koje preduzeća koriste, poput infrastrukture. Sa druge strane, ovaj poreski obrazac znači „obezbeđivanje plaćanja poreza na dohodak građana“, jer da nema fizičkih lica, da bi izbegle plaćanje poreza na dohodak, oni bi sav višak prihoda prebacili na preduzeća. Jasno se ukazuje da sve zemlje EU imaju različite sisteme poreza na dobit (diferencirane poreske osnovice i poreske stope), kao i posledice ove situacije na nivou i raspodele poreza(Radu, 2012; Raitasuo, 2021).

Analiza stope poreza za preduzeća u zemljama EU i poreskih rajeva

Sada ćemo se osvrnuti na stope poreza nekih od zemalja u EU i dokazati zašto se kompanije odlučuju na "rizik" i poslovanje preko poreskih rajeva(Poon et al., 2019).



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Od navedenih zemalja izvršićemo komparativnu analizu za zemlje sa najvećom i najnižom stopom poreza na dobit u EU(Kostić & Mihajlović, 2021). Na osnovu podataka koji su dostupni za zemlje EU možemo uvideti da je najveća stopa poreza na dobit preduzeća (korporacija) u Francuskoj i iznosi 33,33 %. To bi značilo da preduzeće koje ostvari profit u iznosu od 100.000,00 evra, mora platiti obaveze prema državi u iznosu od 33.330,00 evra. Na osnovu navedenog, stvarni profit iznosio bi 66.670,00 evra(Rockenbach et al., 2021). Nasuprot Francuskoj, preduzeća koja posluju u Bugarskoj, koja je takođe članica EU, imaju mnogo manje namete i obaveze prema svojoj državi(Milojević & Miljković, 2021.). Ako uzmemo za primer preduzeće (kompaniju) koje posluje u Bugarskoj i koje takođe ostvari profit u iznosu od 100.000,00 evra, obaveze prema državi iznose svega 10.000,00 evra, a njihov stvarni profit iznosi 90.000,00 evra(Whait et al., 2018). Na osnovu navedenog može se utvrditi da je razlika poreza na dobit u ove dve zemlje izuzetno velika, što Bugarsku svrstava u poželjne zemlje članice EU za investiranje i razvoj privrede(Pantić i dr., 2019.).

Ono što je najvažnije u ovom grafiku, predstavljeno je u poslednjoj kolumni. Poslednja kolumna ovog grafika predstavlja stopu poreza na dobit za korporacije koje posluju preko poreskih rajeva. Navedena kolumna je "nevidljiva", iliti prazna, a glavni razlog tome je stopa poreza na dobit koja iznosi 0 %(Menkhoff & Miethe, 2019.). Same brojke jasno govore zašto velike i najmoćnije kompanije EU posluju preko poreskih rajeva. Krenimo od istog primera i uzmimo kompaniju koja je ostvarila profit od 100.000,00 evra. Obaveze kompanije prema državi u kojoj ima sedište, tj prema nekom od poreskih rajeva iznose 0 (nula) evra. Što znači, stvarni profit navedene kompanije koja posluje preko poreskih rajeva iznosi 100.000,00 evra(Binhadab et al., 2021; Charette, 2019).

Na sledećim graficima možemo uvideti udeo poreske obaveze i stvarnog profita za preduzeće koje posluje u Francuskoj i Bugarskoj.

Grafik 2: Udeo poreske obaveze i profita za preduzeća koja posluju u Francuskoj

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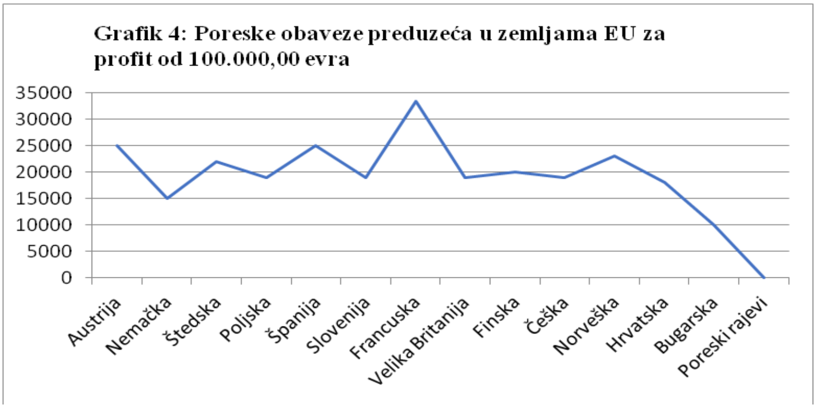

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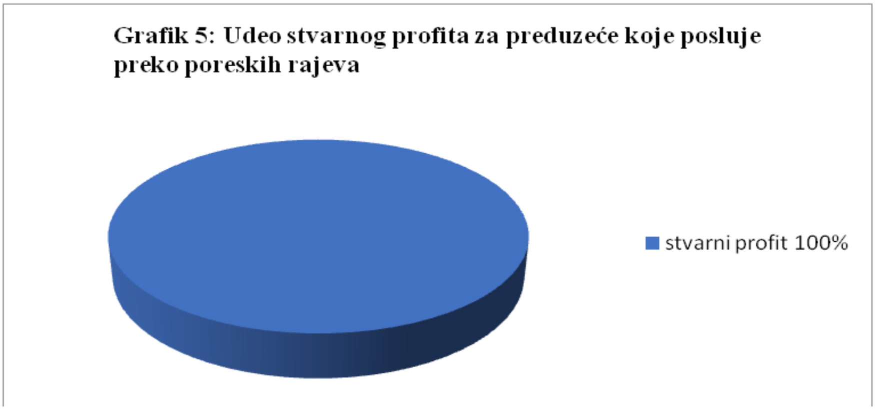
Navedeni grafik ukazuje na visinu poreske obaveze koja se nameće preduzećima koja posluju u državama EU(Fallan, Fallan, 2019). Naravno kriva se spustila na nulu, jer smo već ukazali da je stopa poreza nadobit preduzeća registrovanim u poreskim rajevima 0% (Flavin, Montgomery, 2019). Kao što se vidi poreske obaveze su različite, ali svaka kompanija koja želi maksimalan profit, teži minimiziranju svojih obaveza prema državi.



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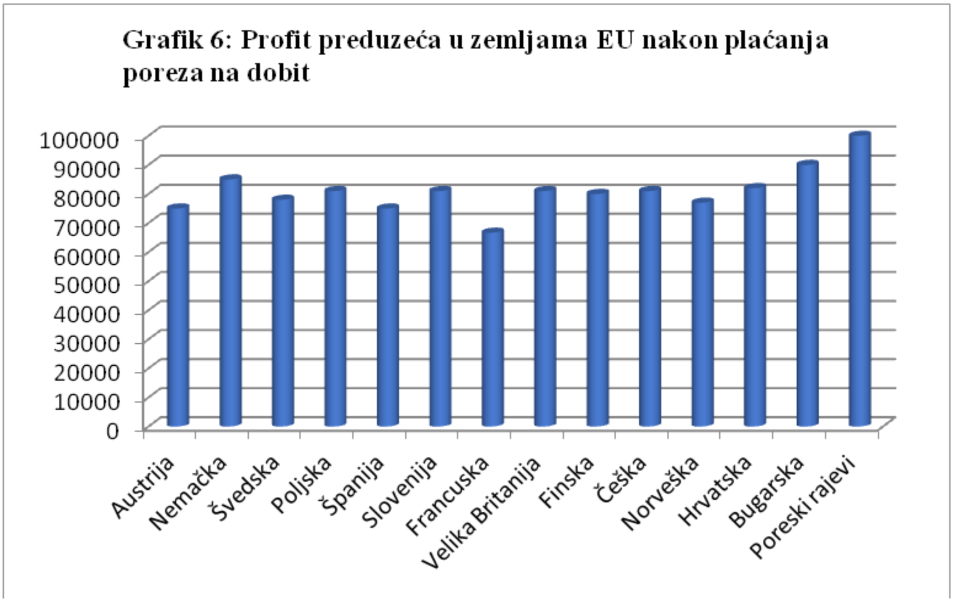
Na osnovu svega navedenog možemo zaključiti da je utaja poreza preko poreskih rajeva izuzetno dobra za korporacije koje posjuju na taj način, međutim takav vid poslovanja ima izuzetno velike posledice po zemlje u razvoju, ali i za razvijene zemlje(Annuar et al., 2014). Poreski rajevi omogućavaju kompanijama širom sveta da prenesu svoje bogatstvo na neke od egzotičnih destinacija (Kipar), ili u velike finansijske centre (Singapur) i time izbegnu poreske obaveze u svojim zemljama i svoj profit maksimiziraju. Svaka kompanija teži maksimiziranju profita i rastu poslovanja, stoga profit prebacuju u u poreske rajeve i time izbegavaju bilo kakve poreske obaveze na ime profita(Gul et al., 2020). Sve zemlje EU se suočavaju sa ovim problemom, čak i Bugarska koja ima najmanju stopu poreza na dohodak korporacija (kako se porez na dobit naziva u organizaciji OECD, a i svuda u svetu).



Izvor: www.oecd.org

Na osnovu analize možemo zaključiti da kompanije ostvaruju rast profita, što je rezultat nižeg, ili nikakvog oporezivanja(Đorđević i Krstić, 2020).

Ovakva politika poreskih rajeva ohrabruje dolazak svetskih moćnika, konglomerata iz industrijski razvijenih zemalja. Za razvoj mnogih sektora male zemlje nisu osposobljene, te im status poreskih rajeva, mesta sa niskom stopom poreza služi da privuku strane kompanije na svoje područje. Neki poreski rajevi radi svog sopstvenog razvoja nude niske poreske stope, pod uslovom da kompanija osnuje stalnu poslovnu jedinicu u zemlji domaćinu, u kojoj bi se zaposlilo lokalno stanovništvo. To i dalje predstavlja prednost za kompanije, jer je radna snaga u takvim područjima mnogo jeftinija od razvijenih zemalja.

Zaključak

Razlozi za implementiranje zakona i propisa o sprečavanju evazije poreza su više nego očigledni. Evazija poreza i poreski rajevi uništavaju jedinstveno tržište i poštenu tržišnu konkurenciju. Samim tim stvara se i nepoverljivost kompanija koje posluju racionalno i u skladu sa zakonom. Na opštem primeru pokazali smo da je cilj svake kompanije ostvarivanje što veće koristi iz svog poslovanja, uz ulakšanje poreskog tereta.

Problemu evazije poreza i poreskim rajevim mora se pristupati na svim poljima, ne samo na strategijski način. To znači da bi udruženim snagama svih zemalja, postupak implementiranja zakona, na osnovu iskustava više zemalja bio mnogo lakši. Posebno treba istaći razmenu informacija, iskustava i znanja među modernim državama u rešavanju ovog globalnog problema. Ovakav globalni problem zahteva i globalno rešenje. To predstavlja i borbu protiv kriminala i borbu protiv evazije poreza preko poreskih rajeva. Time treba nastojati da se očuva finansijski integritet modernih država i finansijskih sistema u celini. Ukoliko se poreski rajevi ne mogu iskoreniti, a izvesno je da ne mogu, onda se njihovo postojanje treba svesti na minimum. Pronalaženjem novih zakonskih rešenja i delotvornih metoda, sprečila bi se evazija poreza, iskorenili poreski rajevi i očuvao finansijski sistem.

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COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECT OF TAX EVASION THROUGH TAX HAVENS

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Abstract

By looking at the most famous tax havens today, we turn our attention to research that will show the real problems and impact of tax havens on tax evasion. For the mentioned research, we will use a comparative analysis in which the tax system of the EU countries and the countries of tax havens will be included.

In all modern countries, personal and corporate income tax are one of the safest sources of state budget revenue. The most significant direct taxes are personal income tax (tax) and corporate income tax.

Key words: tax evasion, effects of tax havens, companies.

Introduction

All EU member states and most other countries in the world, tax company profits. Critics of corporate income tax point out that income taxation is not in line with the basic position of every national economy, in which they point out that companies play a decisive role in achieving economic development.

Taxpayers try to lighten their tax burden as much as possible, regardless of whether they operate nationally or internationally, because the goal of every company is to get the most out of business (Mihajlović & Jeremić, 2020).

In particular, paying income tax means either increasing prices or reducing labor and capital costs (Popov, 2011). However, those who justify corporate

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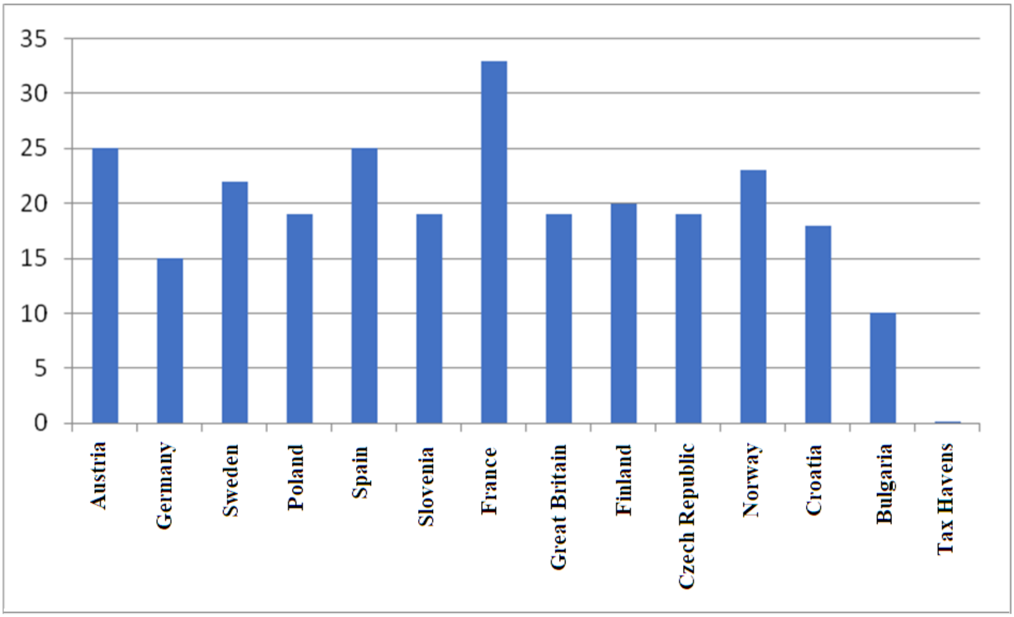
taxation point out that these are in fact payments for public services that companies use, such as infrastructure. On the other hand, this tax form means "ensuring payment of personal income tax", because if there were no natural persons, in order to avoid paying personal income tax, they would transfer all excess income to companies. It is clearly indicated that all EU countries have different corporate tax systems (differentiated tax bases and tax rates), as well as consequences of this situation at the level and distribution of taxes (Radu, 2012; Raitasuo, 2021).

Tax rate analysis for companies in EU countries and tax havens

We will look at tax rates of some of the EU countries and prove why companies choose to "risk" and do business through tax havens (Poon et al., 2019).

Graph 1: Tax rate for companies in EU countries



Source: www.europa.eu

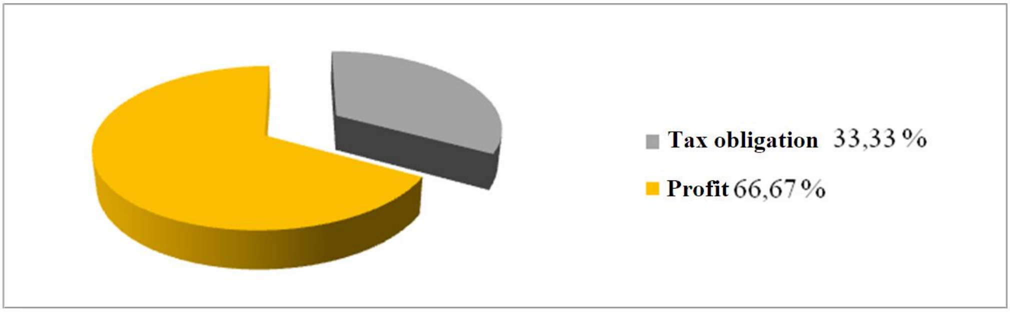
From the mentioned countries, we will perform a comparative analysis for those with the highest and lowest profit tax rate in the EU (Kostić & Mihajlović, 2021). Based on data available for EU countries, we can see that France has the highest corporate income tax rate, amounting to 33.33%. This would mean that a company that makes a profit in the amount of 100,000.00 euros, must pay levies in the amount of 33,330.00 euros. Based on the above, the actual profit would amount to 66,670.00 euros (Rockenbach et al., 2021).

As opposed to France, companies operating in Bulgaria, which is also an EU member, have much lower levies and obligations towards their country (Milojević & Miljković, 2021). If we take a company that operates in Bulgaria as an example, which also makes a profit of 100,000.00 euros, liabilities to the state amount only to 10,000.00 euros, and their actual profit is 90,000.00 euros (Whait et al., 2018). Based on the above, it can be determined that the difference in income tax in these two countries is extremely large, which places Bulgaria among the desirable EU member states for investment and economic development (Pantić et al., 2019).

The most important part of this graph is presented in the last column. The last column of this chart represents income tax rate for companies operating through tax havens. This column is "invisible" or empty, and the main reason for this is because income tax rate there amounts to 0% (Menkhoff & Miethe, 2019). The numbers themselves clearly show why the big and most powerful EU companies operate through tax havens. Let's start from the same example and take a company that made a profit of 100,000.00 euros. The company's liabilities to the country in which it has its headquarters, i.e. in tax havens, amount to 0 (zero) euros. Which means that the actual profit of the said company operating through tax havens is € 100,000.00 (Binhadab et al., 2021; Charette, 2019).

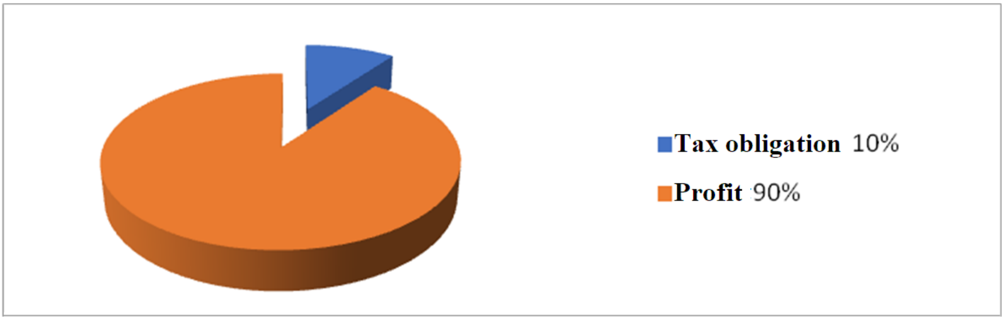
The following graphs show the share of tax liability and real profit for a company operating in France and Bulgaria.

Graph 2: Share of tax obligations and profit for companies doing business in France



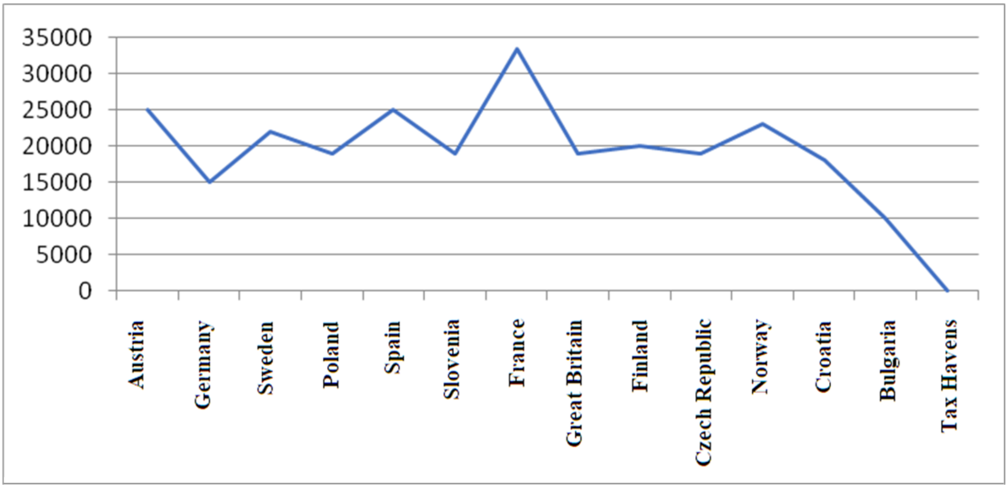
Source: www.europa.eu

Graph 3: Share of tax obligations and profit for companies doing business in Bulgaria



Source: www.europa.eu

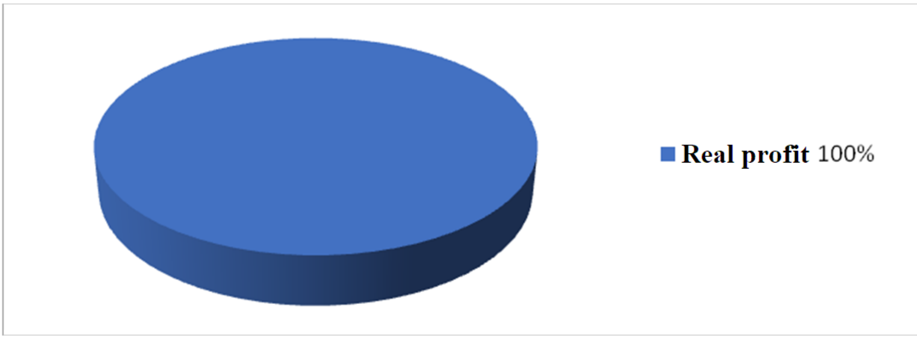
Graph 4: Tax obligations for companies with 100,000.00 euro profit in EU countries



Source: www.europa.eu

The above graph indicates the amount of tax liability imposed on companies operating in EU countries (Fallan & Fallan, 2019). The curve has dropped to zero, because as we have already indicated that income tax rate for companies registered in tax havens is 0% (Flavin & Montgomery, 2019). As can be seen, tax liabilities are different, but every company that wants maximum profit, strives to minimize its obligations to the state.

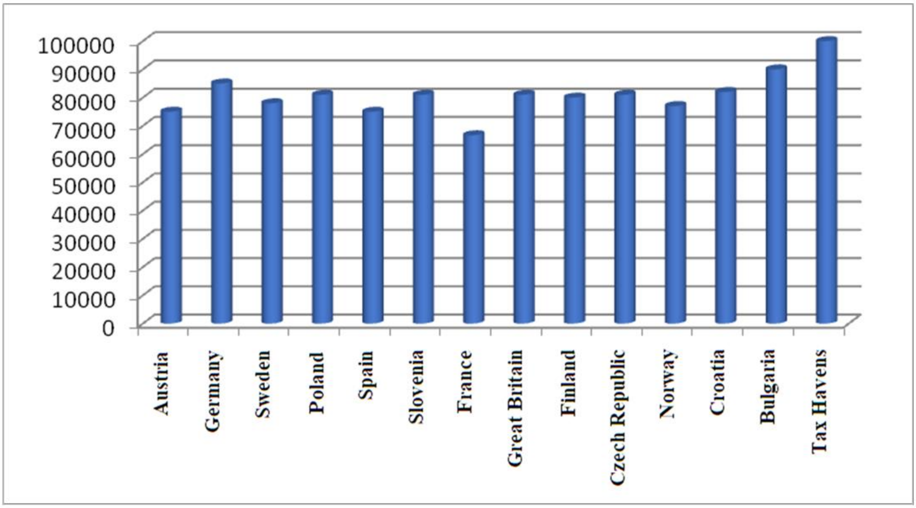
Graph 5: Share of real profit for companies doing business through tax havens



Source: www.fatf-gafi.org

Based on all the above, we can conclude that tax evasion through tax havens is extremely good for companies that operate in this way, but this type of business has extremely large consequences for both developing and developed countries (Annuar et al., 2014). Tax havens allow companies around the world to transfer their wealth to some of the exotic destinations (Cyprus), or large financial centers (Singapore) and thus avoid tax liabilities in their countries and maximize their profits. Every company strives to maximize profits and grow their business, so they transfer profits to tax havens and thus avoid any tax liability in the name of profit (Gul et al., 2020). All EU countries face this problem, even Bulgaria, which has the lowest corporate income tax rate (its name in OECD, and everywhere in the world).

Graph 6: Company profit after paying income tax in EU countries



Source: www.oecd.org

Based on the analysis, we can conclude that companies achieve profit growth, which is the result of lower or no taxation (Đorđević and Krstić, 2020).

This policy of tax havens encourages the arrival of world powers, conglomerates from industrialized countries. Small countries are not qualified for the development of many sectors, so their status as tax havens due to their low tax rate serves them to attract foreign companies to their territory. Some tax havens offer low tax rates for their own development, provided that the company establishes a permanent establishment in the host country, which would employ the local population. This continues to be an advantage for companies, as labor in such areas is much cheaper than in developed countries.

Conclusion

Reasons for implementing laws and regulations to prevent tax evasion are more than obvious. Tax evasion and tax havens are destroying the single market and fair market competition. This creates distrust of companies that operate rationally and in accordance with the law. In a general example, we have shown that the goal of every company is to achieve the greatest possible benefit from its business, while easing the tax burden.

The problem of tax evasion and tax havens must be approached in all fields, not just in a strategic way. This means that for the combined forces of all countries, the process of implementing the law, based on experiences of several countries, would be much easier. Special emphasis should be placed on the exchange of information, experiences and knowledge among modern states in solving this global problem. Such a global problem requires a global solution. It also represents the fight against crime and the fight against tax evasion through tax havens. Thus, efforts should be made to preserve the financial integrity of modern states and financial systems as a whole. If tax havens cannot be eradicated, and it is certain that they cannot, then their existence should be reduced to a minimum. Finding new legal solutions and effective methods would prevent tax evasion, eradicate tax havens and preserve the financial system.

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IZAZOVI I PRAVCI RAZVOJA POSLOVNOG KOMUNICIRANJA NA GLOBALNOM TRŽIŠTU

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Apstrakt

Stručnjaci koji se u teorijskom i praktičnom smislu bave suštinom komunikacionih poslova ističu činjenicu da se proces poslovnog komuniciranja, na početku trećeg milenijuma, koncepcijski i sadržinski, jako promenio. Te promene nisu samo tehnološkog karaktera, već imaju specifično političko, ekonomsko, socijalno, kulturološko, psihološko i svako drugo relevantno određenje. Ovaj rad ukazuje na promenu paradigme u primeni informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija, koja se dešava zbog eksplozije tehnologije u društvu i uticaja globalizacije na savremenu poslovnu komunikaciju. Prekomponovanje pogleda na svet i primena novih metoda i sadržaja nužni su da bi se dobili relevantni efekti poslovne komunikacije. Poslovni svet izaziva da poslovnu komunikaciju koristimo primenom informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija na način 21. veka, ne toliko u korišćenje tehnologije, koliko u stavovima koji oblikuju njenu upotrebu.

Ključne reči: *komunikacija, globalizacija, informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije, društveni kontekst poslovnog komuniciranja.*

JEL: *O33*

Uvod

Vreme u kome živimo dostiglo je najvišu tačku u komuniciranju. Skoro da je centar ljudskog postojanja izmešten u prostor komunikacije, dok je informacija danas

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najvažniji i najskuplji resurs. U tom smislu, veoma je važno kako i sa kim se komunicira, na koji način se selektuju informacije, kako se obrađuju, tumače, šta znače i kako ih upotrebiti (Milovanović, Jovanović, 2018).

Od početka svog postojanja ljudi komuniciraju na neki način, sa drugim komunikacijski kompatibilnim bićima. Komuniciranje je uslov života i egzistencije, i posebno poslovanja u moderno-organizovanim društvenim zajednicama. Zato Nykodym (1988) ističe da je „komunikacija srce svake organizacije". Komunikacija je temeljni društveni fenomen koji se široko opisuje u različitim naučnim disciplinama, pa postoji različito razumevanje načina na koji se koristi ovaj termin. U izvornom smislu, značenje latinskog izraza *comunicare,* pojmovno izražava saopštavanje i primanje poruka u uslovima određenog zajedništva.

Sa istorijskog aspekta, komuniciranje se u kontekstu Darvinovog evolucionog tumačenja razvoja čoveka i ljudskog društva, može uslovno diferencirati po sledećim fazama:

1. Prva faza komunikološkog razvoja čoveka i ljudskog društva, vezana je za period divljaštva, koji je hronološki trajao veoma dugo. U tom periodu ljudi su se međusobno sporazumevali putem pokreta tela, mimike lica i artikulisanih krikova, sa tačno određenim značenjem;
2. Drugu fazu karakteriše formiranje organizovanih društvenih zajednica. U ovom periodu, razvija se razuman ljudski govor, zasnovan na smislenim rečima i rečenicama;
3. Treća faza se odnosi na stvaranje prvih, istorijski poznatih i civilizacijski uređenih država, koje su imale svoja pisma, što je predstavljalo veliki, ne samo komunikološki, već privredni i kulturološki napredak ljudskog društva;
4. Četvrtu fazu karakteriše pojava i razvoj štamparske industrije, kao veliki iskorak u razvoju sredstava i metoda pisanog komuniciranja;
5. Sledeća faza komunikološkog napretka se vezuje za razvoj kapitalizma i dostignuća prve, druge i treće industrijske revolucije. Komuniciranje je u tom periodu bilo tesno povezano sa razvojem saobraćaja i stvaranjem tzv. integrisanih saobraćajnih sistema;
6. Ulazak u 21. stoleće, označio je apsolutnu dominaciju tzv. informatičko-komunikacione industrije. Ovaj period karakteriše pojava i sve intenzivniji razvoj tzv. pametnih mašina, što je oznaka za tehnološki napredak raznih vrsta robota, kompjutera, višenamenskih mobilnih telefona i drugih, sve savršenijih uređaja iz domena tzv. veštačke inteligencije.

Celokupan proces informaciono-komunikacionog tehnološkog napretka, ne bi mogao brzo da se odvija, da ga istovremeno ne prate i drugi, složeni tehnološki, politički, ekonomski, kulturološki, socijalni, psihološki i ostali međusobno povezani planetarni procesi. Navedeni procesi se zajednički imenuju kao procesi globalizacije.

Efekti komunikacije u savremenom poslovanju

U stalnom nastojanju da unapređuje svoje poslovanje, većina preduzeća posebnu pažnju poklanja pitanjima komunikacije i aktuelnim komunikacionim trendovima. Jednostavna, jasna i ciljana komunikacija odavno predstavlja osnovni instrument za plasman relevantnih informacija i platformu uspešnog poslovanja savremenih preduzeća. Na svim nivoima i u svim oblicima rada i poslovanja, komunikacija je osnovni pokretač promena u preduzeću, kako na lokalnom, tako i na globalnom nivou. Integrisani i harmonizovani sistem komunikacija obezbeđuje realizaciju unapred osmišljenih ciljeva, motivisanje i punu informisanost svih zaposlenih u preduzeću.

Na kraju 20. veka, značaj poslovne komunikacije je toliko porastao, da se u današnjem vremenu značaj komunikacija ne može kvantifikovati. Ovaj rast je uvek bio praćen naporom da se uspostavi jasan identitet za ovo istraživačko polje, jer komuniciranje je jedna od najkompleksnijih, najobuhvatnijih i najdinamičnijih aktivnosti u ljudskom društvu (Dobardžić, 2015). Zbog toga, naučnici i danas nastoje da utvrde fokus i granice pri definisanju i redefinisanju budućnosti ovog polja. Veliko interesovanje za ovu predmetnu oblast može se objasniti značajem koji komunikacija ima u preduzećima, odnosno u organizacijama uopšte. Osnovni uslov za uspešnu saradnju zaposlenih u preduzeću je razmena funkcionalnih i organizacionih informacija. Zbog toga je komunikacija konstitutivni uslov za nastanak, kontinuitet i fleksibilnost preduzeća (Spieß,Winterstein, 1999). Bez mogućnosti komunikacije, savremena preduzeća bi prestala da postoje. To je mehanizam kojim se prenose informacije i osnov za zajednički rad, pa je od suštinske važnosti za sve organizacione interakcije (Bismarck, Bungard, Held, 1999).

Unutar preduzeća jača poverenje zaposlenih u viziju i misiju preduzeća, povezuje zaposlene sa realnošću posla, podstiče razvoj preduzeća, olakšava promene neophodne za napredak, i pomaže u promeni ponašanja. Spolja u okruženju, imidž preduzeća, uočavanje novih poslovnih prilika i odnos sa društvom u velikoj meri zavise od toga koliko je dobro osmišljen i sproveden tekući proces komunikacije. U osnovi, proces komunikacije nije softverska funkcija preduzeća, već pokretač poslovnog uspeha, koji ima ključnu funkciju u učinku preduzeća (Mucchielli, 2010).

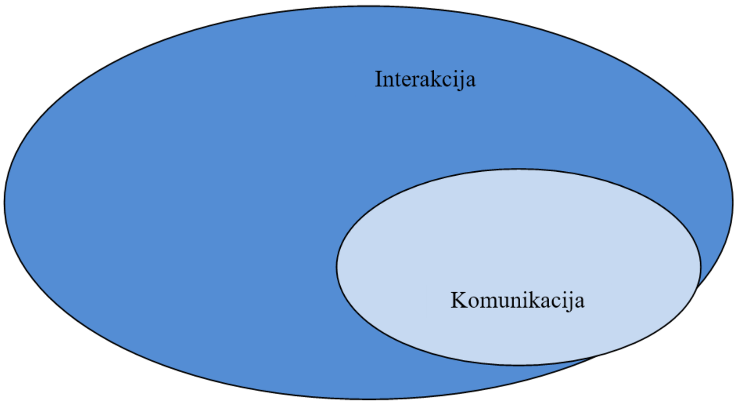
Interakcija i komunikacija, dva pojma – jedno značenje

Za ovaj rad ima smisla ukazati na odnos između pojmova interakcija i komunikacija. U zavisnosti od osnovnog razumevanja pojma komunikacija, pojmovi interakcija i komunikacija koriste se i kao sinonimi. Karakteristike koje omogućavaju ili razjašnjavaju razliku između njih su namera, plan i formiranje sistema (Weick, 1985).

Prema Blickleu (2004) „Društvena interakcija se može shvatiti kao efekat uticaja različitih ljudi jedni na druge ...“. U vezi sa namerom i planom, ova konstatacija podrazumeva da ljudi mogu međusobno da komuniciraju samo svojim fizičkim prisustvom, bez osnovane namere ili plana. Primer je fenomen društvene interakcije, u kojem se performanse ljudi menjaju samo prisustvom drugih ljudi. Dok se performanse povećavaju sa jednostavnim zadacima, smanjuju se sa složenim zadacima. Međusobna interakcija je nenamerna, neplanirana i može biti van znanja zainteresovanih.

Frindte (2001) smatra da je „Komunikacija društveni proces tokom kojeg uključeni ljudi podstiču jedni druge da grade stvarnost“. Da bi mogli da komuniciraju jedni s drugima, potreban je zajednički skup simbola, koji je uobičajeno stvoren kroz sistemsku formu koja je povezana sa društvenim i kulturnim strukturama (Theis, 1994). S druge strane, društvena interakcija se može odvijati nezavisno od toga. Ako se jezičke i društvene strukture razvijaju u obliku ponavljajućih sekvenci interakcije, te strukture se nazivaju komunikacionim pravilima (Blickleu, 2004). Ukoliko svaki čin komunikacije dovodi do uticaja na drugu osobu, komunikacija se može posmatrati kao podskup interakcije (slika 1).

Slika 1. Komunikacija kao podskup interakcije



Izvor: Nikole, 2013

Proces komunikacije je planirani proces sa osnovnom namerom ostvarivanja određenog cilja. Međutim, ako interakciji nedostaje namera ili čak znanje o uticaju, tada interakcija nije nužno komunikacija (Blickleu, 2004).

Funkcije poslovne komunikacije

Termin poslovna komunikacija u osnovi uključuje bilo koji oblik komunikacije, a time i komunikaciju između preduzeća i kupaca i dobavljača, kao i sa drugim spoljnim subjektima. Poteškoće u definisanju poslovne komunikacije proizilaze iz raznovrsne upotrebe pojma u različitim naučnim disciplinama i složenosti fenomena komunikacije i poslovanja. Prvo i najvažnije, ovaj termin podrazumeva pretpostavku da se radi o komunikaciji u preduzeću.

Zaposleni u preduzeću koji mogu da komuniciraju osećaju se povezani sa napretkom poslovanja i razumeju kako svojim postupcima mogu da podrže taj posao. Novi zaposleni se brzo povezuju sa kulturom takvog preduzeća i bolje se nose sa promenama koje menadžment zahteva u određenim situacijama. Drugim rečima, preduzeća sve više komuniciraju, ali s obzirom na tehnološki napredak, preferiraju brže i modernije načine slanja i primanja poruka. Efikasna i efektivna poslovna komunikacija je osnova na kojoj se grade i drugi ključni faktori preduzeća: investicije, menadžment, ljudski resursi, nove ideje, kao i njihova inteligentna upotreba(Coman, 2001).

Koje funkcije komunikacije su dodeljene u preduzeću u potpunosti zavisi od organizacionog razumevanja i perspektive. Za Theisa(1994) „Važnost komunikacije za preduzeća proističe iz njene kontrolne funkcije“. Formalne strukture preduzeća usklađuju delovanje zaposlenih sa osnovnim organizacionim ciljevima i tako dodiruju srž naučnog razmatranja ovog istraživačkog polja(Nerdinger, 2011). U razumevanju funkcija poslovne komunikacije, Walgenbach(2004) smatra da treba poći od Maxa Webera, koji se smatra osnivačem organizacione teorije. Njegova analiza birokratije je i danas relevantna. Prema Weberu, pojavu birokratije treba posmatrati u vezi sa sposobnošću ljudi da oblikuju životnu sredinu kroz intelektualno suočavanje sa njom. Ovaj proces se odvija na sledećim nivoima(Kieser, 2006):

- na nivou pogleda na svet,

- praktičnog načina života i
- institucija.

Prenoseći pojam birokratije na preduzeća, Weber(1972) ističe da su: „Velika, moderna kapitalistička preduzeća i sama modeli tesne birokratske organizacije“. U odnosu na značaj poslovne komunikacije Kieser(2006) navodi da se „Komunikacija između pojedinih zaposlenih odvija zvaničnim kanalima, uglavnom u pisanoj formi, putem pisama, obrazaca, beleški, itd.“ Pismena komunikacija osigurava dalje postojanje preduzeća bez obzira na promenu zaposlenih u preduzeću. Pisanje svih procesa koji se smatraju relevantnim i dalje je uobičajeni način rukovanja informacijama. Međutim, sa povećanjem složenosti, broja procesa i količine informacija, preduzeća se suočavaju sa novim problemima, kao što su preopterećenost informacijama, racionalno skladištenje i strukturiranje informacija koje zahteva brzi pristup. Formalizovane komunikacione strategije, zapisivanje administrativnih procesa, kao i de-individualizacija zaposlenih, karakteristike su većine preduzeća do danas. Ona se zasnivaju na pretpostavci da menadžment preduzeća poseduje sve relevantne informacije i prosleđuje ih operativnim organizacionim jedinicama kroz definisane komunikacione kanale nadole.

Formalna komunikacija

Formalno definisana komunikacija je ograničena i oblikovana izborom strukture, pravilima i specifikacijama. Ovaj zvanični oblik komunikacije odnosi se na razmenu informacija o preduzeću i učinku. Komunikacione strukture i procesi su potpuno odvojeni od pojedinca koji zauzima odgovarajuću poziciju. Formalna komunikacija je deo komunikacije koji je direktno uočljiv i usmeren na ostvarivanje organizacionih ciljeva. Prema Maxu Weberu, dokumentacija je karakteristična suština formalne komunikacije. Pomoću nje, sve važne informacije o procesu ostaju u preduzeću bez obzira na službenika ili nosioca posla i generalno su dostupne svim zaposlenima u preduzeću. Međutim, kvantitet dostupnih informacija je skoro neograničen. To znači da je centralni zadatak formalne komunikacije u dostavljanju relevantnih informacija pojedinim funkcionalnim oblastima na adekvatan način, istovremeno izbegavajući informativni deficit(Barreto, 2011).

Klasični instrumenti kojima se formalna komunik1acija institucionalizuje su cirkulatori, oglasne table, radni sastanci, pisma sa informacijama o upravljanju, intervjui i časopisi za zaposlene. Tokom elektronskog razvoja uspostavili su se elektronski zasnovani instrumenti: e-mailovi, forumi, veb konferencije, blogovi, intraneti, mrežni bilteni, trenutne poruke, usluge društvenih mreža i video konferencije.

Ključne poteškoće formalne komunikacije ogledaju se, na primer u pogledu dokumentacije, koja se smatra teškom, zbog obilja dokumentovanih radnji i zbunjujućom. Takođe, u oblasti dokumentacije, zbog brze promene tokova procesa, javljaju se teškoće u kontinuiranom ažuriranju i održavanju aktuelnosti formalizovanih postupaka i procesa.

Neformalna komunikacija

U opštem smislu, neformalna komunikacija uključuje sve komunikacione procese koji se odvijaju izvan organizaciono regulisanih procesa. Zbog toga nije direktno uočljiva i nije predmet organizacione kontrole, već je izbegava. Kako se naglasak postepeno prenosio na ulogu socijalnih faktora u ljudskom radnom učinku, neformalni odnosi i time neformalna komunikacija, su došli u fokus nauke i prakse. Zato Schreyögg(2003) konstatuje „Ono što se decenijama posmatralo kao nepredvidiva promenljiva, kao poremećaj, emocionalnost, odjednom je proglašeno presudnim faktorom produktivnosti“. Zašto ljudi traže neformalne odnose u formalnim radnim situacijama? Najvažniji razlog postojanja takvih odnosa i mreža leži u činjenici da pojedinci u preduzećima i dalje ostaju društvena bića tokom svog rada. Potreba za neformalnom razmenom proizilazi iz socijalne i psihološke funkcije komunikacije(Katz and Kahn, 1978). Motivi povezivanja, identitet i samopoštovanje, društvena stvarnost, odbrambeni mehanizmi i smanjenje rizika identifikovani su kao psihološki razlozi za postojanje neformalnih mreža(Baker, 1981). Sadržaj neformalne komunikacije, budući da se ne radi o informacijama vezanim za rad i učinak, zasniva se na privatnim temama i samim tim temama koje „potiču iz privatne sfere zaposlenog ili utiču na njega“.(Barrreto, 2011)

Waldstrøm(2001) je glavne sadržaje neformalnih mreža diferencirao u četiri kategorije:

1. Afektivni – poput prijateljstva, poverenja i bliskih odnosa
2. Produktivni – kao što su saveti, razmena tehničkog znanja i inovacija
3. Politički – kao što su uticaj, moć i autoritet, i
4. Kulturni – komunikacija i protok informacija

Ove prilično nesvesne razloge za postojanje neformalnih mreža prate svesni razlozi za njihov nastanak, kao što su potreba za znanjem, saveti ili politički manevri. Kao deo želje za pripadanjem, zaposleni pored formalnog ugrađivanja traži i socijalno ugrađivanje u preduzeće. Privatni događaji, poput rođendana člana preduzeća ili rođenja deteta mogu igrati značajnu ulogu na radnom mestu. Ovo jača osećaj pripadnosti grupi. Egalitarni kvalitet neformalne komunikacije ima obavezujući efekat na zaposlene u preduzeću i jača grupnu koheziju(Kraut et al., 1990).

Odvajanje formalne od neformalne komunikacije ne remeti svakodnevni život preduzeća. „Formalne i neformalne mreže postoje istovremeno, a dvoje ljudi koji imaju formalne veze u jednoj situaciji mogu imati neformalne veze u drugoj. Dalje, iste osobe mogu imati nekoliko formalnih i neformalnih veza međusobno, a istu neformalnu mrežu mogu motivisati različiti faktori"(Waldstrøm, C. 2001). Ima više smisla integrisati sve komunikativne procese koji se odnose na sadržaj rada i osigurati postizanje organizacionog cilja. Prelaz između dva oblika komunikacije u preduzećima može biti fluidan, kao što Schreiogg(2003) ističe: „nijedno preduzeće ne može bez spontanih napora svojih zaposlenih. Često, formalne strukture nisu ništa drugo nego odobreni nalozi koji su se razvili u spontanim procesima".

Globalizacija svetske privrede

Globalizacija nije novi koncept. On se tokom vekova razvijao i mutirao da odražava prioritete i ambicije različitih generacija. Globalni doseg nacija za geopolitičke, ekonomske, vojne i trgovinske benefite prevazišao je vekove i obuhvatio gotovo sve države na svetu. Globalizacija danas predstavlja jednu od najvažnijih tekovina ekonomskog razvoja i modernizacije. Velike promene u svetskoj ekonomiji, karakterišu se uspostavljanjem kompleksnih veza i odnosa između država i preduzeća na globalnom nivou, i nizom globalnih neravnoteža koje se javljaju kao direktne posledice ekonomskih međuzavisnosti nacionalnih ekonomija u svetskoj privredi. Širom sveta, zemlje su povezane u multidimenzionalnu mrežu ekonomskih, socijalnih, i političkih veza i odnosa. U meri u kojoj su te veze značajnije i kompleksnije, pojedine nacionalne ekonomije osećaju više ili manje sve pozitivne i negativne efekte opštih kretanja u svetskoj privredi.

Neki teoretičari globalizaciju ističu kao kvalitativno novi nivo razvoja ljudskog društva, koji se u opštem smislu sastoji od tri dimenzije – ekonomske, socijalne i političke. Iako se globalizacija prvenstveno posmatra kao ekonomski fenomen, teoretičari iz različitih naučnih oblasti sve češće ističu da je to složen kulturni proces koji pokreće temeljno restrukturiranje ljudskog života u postmodernom svetu. Složeni socijalni, ekonomski i politički procesi se preklapaju, prepliću i stvaraju nove margine koje čine nove institucionalne strukture. Tradicionalni pojmovi, kao što su država i nacija, iz ove perspektive smatraju se istorijskim konstrukcijama, koje predstavljaju fiksiranje bivših uslova, koji su se ugradili u stabilnije strukture, kako u unutrašnjem tako i u međunarodnom pogledu(Granovetter, M . 1992). Uloga nacionalne države u eri globalizacije bitno se razlikuje od njene uloge u eri merkantilizma, dok podsticaji za globalizaciju preduzeća dolaze kako od ekonomije veličine tako i od ekonomije širine, odnosno od širenja poslovnih aktivnosti. Za Friedmana(2012): ,,Globalizacija je proces privrednog, socijalnog, kulturnog i političkog delovanja koje nadmašuje granice nacionalnih država". Stiglic(2002) globalizaciju vidi „...kroz uklanjanje barijera slobodnoj trgovini i čvršću integraciju nacionalnih ekonomija". Pojam globalizacije je postao naročito aktuelan 60-tih godina prošlog veka, iako su već tada brojni autori i istraživači smatrali da bez osnova ima preveliko značenje, navodeći kao argumente ograničenje globalnih procesa na razvijene zemlje koji doprinose marginalizaciji zemalja u razvoju.

Mnogi autori ističu brojne pozitivne aspekte globalizacije. Na primer, kako se više novca uliva u zemlje u razvoju, veće su šanse ljudi u tim zemljama da ekonomski uspeju i povećaju svoj životni standard.Vlade bolje rade zajedno na zajedničkim ciljevima kada postoji prednost u saradnji, poboljšana je sposobnost interakcije i koordinacije, kao i globalna svest o problemima. Veći je pristup stranoj kulturi u vidu filmova, muzike, hrane, odeće i dr. Ukratko, svet ima više izbora. Međutim, svi prodori u ovim pravcima nailaze na nepotpunu liberalizaciju ekonomija razvijenih zemalja. Delimična priroda ovog procesa i sama je odraz protekcionističke prakse koja i danas dominira u svetu. Takođe, zemlje u razvoju suočavaju se sa izazovom prilagođavanja svojih politika institucionalnim mehanizmima koje nameću razvijene zemlje. Eksplozivan tempo globalnog finansijskog razvoja stvorio je mogućnosti za finansiranje i zaštitu od finansijskog rizika, ali je otvorio velike probleme uzrokovane asimetrijom koja postoji između snage tržišnih sila i slabosti institucionalnih okvira koji ih regulišu. Koegzistencija finansijske globalizacije i nacionalnih makroekonomskih politika, koje su i dalje formulisane na osnovu domaćih interesa i konteksta, stvara značajne tenzije za zemlje u razvoju. Takođe, zemlje u razvoju su ugrožene globalizacijom finansijske nestabilnosti, koja ima negativne efekte na ekonomski rast i socijalnu ravnopravnost(Rodrik, 2001).

Finansijska nestabilnost je najjasnija, ali ne i jedina manifestacija progresivne asimetrije između snage tržišta i nedostatka adekvatnog ekonomskog upravljanja. Ostale manifestacije uključuju značajnu ekonomsku koncentraciju u celom svetu i višestruke distributivne tenzije izazvane procesom globalizacije između i unutar zemalja. Ovi fenomeni su deo niza starih i novih pretnji ekonomskoj i socijalnoj sigurnosti stanovništva, čiji položaj postaje sve nesigurniji progresivnim slabljenjem čitavog niza mreža socijalne sigurnosti. Jedan od problema su jake tenzije koje nastaju između homogenosti i kulturne raznolikosti. Drugi je ogromna udaljenost između simboličke integracije u globalizovani svet i nedovoljnog kapaciteta za stvarnu integraciju usled oštrih nejednakosti koje postoje u današnjem svetu. Mnogi od ovih problema potiču iz nepotpune i asimetrične prirode politike koja je povezana sa trenutnom fazom procesa globalizacije. U brojnim raspravama koje se vode poslednjih godina, traži se nova međunarodna arhitektura za globalno doba zasnovana na širokom programu i reprezentativnom i pluralističkom pregovaračkom procesu. Takva globalna agenda trebalo bi da obuhvati ispravljanje međunarodnih nejednakosti i asimetrije(Kaul, 2013).

Proces globalizacije je u uslovima velikih promena i dinamičnog razvoja ljudskog društva, doneo velike promene u tehnologiji, poslovanju, politici, kulturnom i javnom životu svih zemalja. Došlo je do ujednačavanja tehnoloških, organizacionih i kulturoloških standarda informisanja, komuniciranja i sveukupnog poslovanja na planetarnom nivou. I pored brojnih protivrečnosti proces globalizacije ne može da se izbegne, jer je globalizacija nerazdvojni proces razvoja međunarodnih odnosa i političkih, kulturnih i ekonomskih interakcija da današnjoj svetsko-globalnoj sceni.

Konsekvence procesa globalizacije na sistem poslovnog komuniciranja

Za uspešan i efikasan nastup u dinamičnom, promenljivom i konkurentnom globalnom svetu, države i preduzeća moraju da preispitaju svoje uloge i da se prekomponuju, kako bi sigurno i produktivno poslovali na globalnom tržištu. Savremeno poslovanje zahteva nove radne prakse i fleksibilnu radnu snagu. To znači da zaposleni u širokoj lepezi novih poslovnih aktivnosti moraju direktno da komuniciraju jedni s drugima, pri čemu se uspeh u poslu u velikoj meri oslanja na to koliko kvalitetno zaposleni mogu da komuniciraju. U oblasti modernog poslovanja, komunikacija je prodrla u gotovo sve aspekte profesije: od marketinga do proizvodnje, od osiguranja kvaliteta do održavanja nakon prodaje(Grin, 2001). Devedesete godine prošlog veka pojačale su trend ubrzanog razvoja informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija, i brisanja granica između vremena i prostora. Ubrzani razvoj masovnih komunikacija uticao je na smanjenje vremenske distance, približavanje dalekih zemalja i stvaranje globalne kulture(Robertson, R. 1992).

U prvoj fazi razvoja, proces globalizacije se najintenzivnije manifestovao na polju informatike i komuniciranja, da bi se potom uzročno-posledično, reflektovao i u ostalim oblastima ljudskog stvaralaštva. Pogrešno je smatrati da je proces globalizacije isključivo fenomen tehničko-tehnološkog karaktera. Refleksija procesa globalizacije na ljudsko rasuđivanje i ponašanje, kako u poslovanju, tako i u ličnom i društvenom životu, je znatno šira, i ima različite dimenzije i sadržaje ispoljavanja. Ljudsko ponašanje je uslovljeno novim informaciono-komunikacionim tehnologijama i globalnim društvenim promenama. Globalno društvo je pojavom novih tehnologija promenilo način poslovanja i komuniciranja na daljinu, i ubrzalo protok informacija primenom novih medija. Stvarni kontakti u realnom svetu sve više se zamenjuju virtualnim kontaktima. Unutar globalnog sistema temeljni resursi su informacije, znanje, mreža, upravljanje na daljinu i komunikacija.

Interesantno je Kaplanovo(2003) viđenje refleksije globalizacije na poslovno komuniciranje: „...globalizacija ne predstavlja samo dobre vesti, već aktuelne vesti. A vesti mogu sve više da zabrinjavaju, jer donose sa sobom znatno veće komplikacije, nego što mogu da pruže stabilnost". Način komuniciranja u digitalnom dobu potpuno se promenio, pre svega zbog trendova i izazova koje nameću Internet i digitalni mediji u savremenom poslovanju. Potreba za globalnim jezikom inicirana je elektronskom komunikacijom, koja je promenila način upotrebe jezika. Pojavili su se novi komunikacioni i jezički oblici koji su nužni u komunikaciji putem novih medija.

Značaj poslovne komunikacije i njen uticaj na uspeh preduzeća, postao je kritično istraživačko područje globalne komunikacije. Postoje tri ključna faktora koji su podstakli i ubrzali razvoj poslovnog komuniciranja u procesu globalizacije:

1. Rastuća integracija ekonomija sveta
2. Razvoj i širenje informacione tehnologije
3. Eksplozivan rast interneta.

Situacija u poslovnoj komunikaciji je internacionalizovana tendencijama globalizacije. Sa intenzivnim vezama između lokalnih i multinacionalnih kompanija primenom novih informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija, uloga komuniciranja u poslovnom svetu je podignuta na jedan kvalitativno znatno viši nivo. Problem odnosa globalizacije i komunikacije u sferi poslovanja predstavlja samo fragment celokupnog procesa. Očigledno je da će se globalizacija komunikacije odvijati u različitim zemljama, regionima, različitim tempom i u različitim oblicima.

Tehnologije komuniciranja u savremenom poslovanju

Revolucija informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije duboko je promenila strukturne parametre i modus-operandi većine nacionalnih ekonomija. Transformacija iz industrijskog u informatičko doba rezultirala je restrukturiranjem radnog okruženja, stvaranjem novih ekonomskih institucija i rekonfiguracijom makroekonomskog sistema. Informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije predstavljaju raznovrsnu kolekciju tehnološke opreme i resursa koji se koriste za komunikaciju, kao i za generisanje, distribuciju, prikupljanje i administriranje informacija. Sastoje se od hardvera, softvera, mreža i medija za prikupljanje, čuvanje, obradu, prenos i prezentaciju informacija, kao i srodnih usluga. Mogu se podeliti u dve komponente:

1. Komunikaciona infrastruktura – odnosi se na fizičke telekomunikacione sisteme i mreže (ćelijska, emitovana, kablovska, satelitska, poštanska) i usluge koje ih koriste (Internet, glas, pošta, radio i televizija), i
2. Informaciona tehnologija – odnosi se na hardver i softver za prikupljanje, skladištenje, obradu i prezentaciju informacija.

U srcu informaciono-komunikacione revolucije je vitalni proces komercijalizacije naučnih otkrića i novih izuma, jer je put od pronalaska do inovacija dug i prepun prepreka. Spisak pronalazaka koji se pripisuju globalnoj ekonomiji još uvek je u povojima, ali već uključuje računare, internet i telekomunikacione uređaje. Uloga informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije u razvojnim procesima globalizacije bila je ključna. Moderna komunikaciona sredstva, osim sopstvenog napretka, neposredno utiču i na kompleksnu razmenu znanja između drugih oblasti društvenog stvaralaštva, podstičući neposredno ili posredno njihov razvoj. Kolaps vremena i prostora primenom informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija izmestio je fizičko sa virtuelnim tržištem Interneta za poslovanje između preduzeća i poslovanja sa potrošačkim transakcijama.

O doprinosima koje moderna informaciono-komunikaciona tehnologija pruža ljudima u oblasti savremenog poslovanja, ne treba posebno isticati. Ne samo poslovno informisanje i komuniciranje, koje se zahvaljujući modernoj tehnologiji sve brže odvija između poslovnih subjekata, već i obavljanje poslova završnog tipa, kao što su zaključivanje poslovnih ugovora, isporuka robe, kao i plaćanje, danas se u modernim poslovnim sistemima obavlja isključivo elektronski. Treba međutim istaći da sve u navedenom domenu nije tako pozitivno i društveno korisno, kao na prvi pogled. Moderni i tehnološki usavršeni informaciono-komunikacioni sistemi, stvaraju uslove za obavljanje tzv. virtuelnog poslovanja, koje postaje sve masovnije i razuđenije. To je biznis zasnovan na raznolikim i misaono promišljenim špekulacijama, posebno finansijskog karaktera. Svakako da biznis realnog tipa trpi zbog ovakve primene savremene informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije, i podređen bankama, investicionim kompanijama, finansijskim fondovima i dr., dolazi u inferioran položaj u odnosu na biznise virtuelnog tipa. Na ličnom planu prevelika upotreba kompjutera u cilju poniranja u izazovan ali problematičan Sajber prostor, već je stvorila nove bolesti zavisnosti, koje neoprezne korisnike odvlače u ozbiljne probleme i bolesti.

Kada se posmatra integracija informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija za podršku u postizanju ciljeva poslovne komunikacije, može se reći da nakon skoro deceniju korišćenja za podsticanje razvoja poslovne komunikacije, ona još uvek nije u potpunosti integrisana u komunikacioni sistem i još je potrebno podizanje svesti kod zaposlenih.

Političke implikacije razvoja informaciono-komunikacionih tehnoligija

Zahvaljujući ubrzanom razvoju informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija, politički odnosi između država i njihovih vlada i drugih političkih subjekata, postaju sve neposredniji i direktniji. Pravilo je da su zemlje sa razvijenijim informaciono-komunikacionim sistemima superiornije i u drugim domenima posebno tehnološkim, ekonomskim, vojnim i političkim, u odnosu na države koje su, u odnosu na njih, inferiorne u tom pogledu. Nadređenost i podređenost između pojedinih zemalja, na planetarnom nivou i po komunikološkoj osnovi je izrazito vidljiva. Moderni informaciono-komunikacioni sistemi kreiraju političku mapu i veoma utiču na odnose političkih snaga i unutar pojedinih država. Zahvaljujući medijima sa kvalitetnim vizuelno-auditivnim eksplikacijama, poznati političari, sa njihovim javnim nastupima danas faktički ulaze u svaki dom, što o navedenima stvara drugačiju sliku, u odnosu na raniju situaciju, kada biračka javnost nije mogla tako neposredno da ih upozna.

Ekonomske posledice razvoja informaciono-komunikacionih tehnoligija

Najveći uticaj savremenih informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija reflektuje se u sferi globalizovanog svetskog biznisa. Kako poznavaoci razvojnih zbivanja maštovito ističu „Svet je postao jedno veliko selo“, u kome se dobro zna ko šta proizvodi i radi. Upravo u ovom domenu najviše dolazi do izražaja međusobna superiornost i inferiornost pojedinih država i privrednih društava, u pogledu informaciono-komunikacione opremljenosti i ekonomske moći, koja se u svakoj pojedinačnoj poslovnoj situaciji neposredno oslikava. Drugim rečima, zemlje koje imaju tehnološki razvijenije informaciono-komunikacione sisteme i komunikacionu prohodniju poslovnu infrastrukturu, nalaze se u znatno povoljnijem i superiornijem ekonomskom položaju, u odnosu na zemlje koje su u međusobnim komunikacionim i poslovnim interakcijama i odnosima, skromnije sa navedenim resursima. Šta više, u mnogim ekonomskim izveštajima komparativnog karaktera, kao objektivan pokazatelj privredne i uopšte društvene razvijenosti, navodi se tehnološki nivo napretka informaciono-komunikacione infrastrukture, sa kojom pojedine zemlje, raspolažu.

Kulturološki aspekti globalizacije informaciono-komunikacionih sistema

Sve donedavno svaka država i narod je imao svoju, originalnu nacionalnu kulturu života i rada, koja je od zemlje do zemlje reflektovala svoje specifičnosti. Na kulturološkom planu, pod uticajem globalizacije, poslednjih decenija se odvijaju ubrzane promene. Sve nacionalne kulture više/manje gube svoj nacionalni i regionalni identitet. Ukoliko se neke osobenosti neguju i zadržavaju, reč je uglavnom o tzv. reliktima prevaziđene prošlosti, koji imaju isključivo turističku vrednost. Jasna refleksija jednog naroda, nije više snažno izražena nacionalna kultura, već ekonomska, vojna i politička moć sa kojom se navedeni narod predstavlja u međunarodnim komunikacionim, ekonomskim i političkim odnosima. Evidentno je da se različite nacionalne i regionalne kulture, pod uticajem globalnog sistema informisanja i komuniciranja, mešaju i sažimaju, i daju produkt nove tipizirane, standardizovane i unificirane planetarne kulture Novog doba. Naivno je misliti da svi narodi i sve nacionalne kulture imaju podjednak uticaj i dejstvo na stvaranje globalne planetarne kulture. Ova kultura se kreira i širi prevashodno sa kulturološkog područja SAD i donekle Velike Britanije, i kao potapajući kulturološki talas preplavljuje sve narode i zemlje savremenog sveta. Zahvaljujući globalizovanim medijima masovnog informisanja i komuniciranja, svi ljudi na planeti se, ukoliko im finansijske mogućnosti to dozvoljavaju, slično hrane, odevaju, obrazuju, na sličan način se zabavljaju i na sličan kulturološki način obavljaju i sve druge funkcije svoga rada i života.

Socijalne posledice globalnog komuniciranja

Na osnovu navedenog, stiče se utisak da globalno-uobličeno komuniciranje i socijalna dešavanja na nacionalnom i planetarnom nivou, nisu u praktičnoj vezi. Ovakav utisak je pogrešan, jer ova veza postoji, i preko usvojenog globalnog sistema privrede i ekonomije direktno utiče na socijalne procese koji se odvijaju u savremenom svetu. Bazična odlika socijalnih procesa, izražava se kroz ubrzan proces socijalnog raslojavanja sveukupne populacije u celom svetu, kako na nacionalnom tako i na svetskom nivou. Drugim rečima, sve manji broj ljudi postaje sve bogatiji, dok istovremeno sve veći broj ljudi postaje sve siromašniji. Uloga medija masovnog informisanja i komuniciranja je u osnovi izuzetno manipulativna. Na neposredan ili posredan način ovi mediji šire ideju da čovečanstvo, u istorijskom smislu, živi u demokratski najboljem ideološkom, ekonomskom i socijalnom poretku, i da ovaj poredak nema alternativu, odnosno da je sistem tzv. korporativnog kapitalizma, koji sada dominira, nešto najbolje što su ljudi u ekonomskom i socijalnom smislu mogli, do sada, da ostvare. Velika obmana koja se plasira preko medija masovnog informisanja i komuniciranja, bezrezervno se prihvata, što je samo dokaz činjenice da nema ozbiljne ideološke kritike ovog sistema.

Zaključak

Navedeno izlaganje ukazuje na činjenicu da savremeni sistemi poslovnog i ličnog komuniciranja u globalizovanoj civilizaciji Novog Doba, dobijaju potpuno drugačije oblike i sadržaje, u odnosu na vreme, od pre nekoliko decenija. Menjaju se, ne samo sredstva i oprema za izvođenje komunikacionih interakcija, već i interesi i ciljevi komunikatora (pošiljalaca poruka), koje imaju u odnosu na svoje recepijente (primaoce poruka). Ekonomski profil globalne ekonomije vođen je tehnologijom, podstaknutom inovacijama i preduzetničkom inicijativom, a zasnovan je na novim idejama, perspektivama i novim poslovnim strategijama. Istovremeno, globalna ekonomija je promenila ekonomski pejzaž i poravnala veze između različitih sektora ekonomije. Ukratko, tehnološke inovacije i preduzetnička inicijativa obeležavaju život u globalnoj ekonomiji 21. veka. Globalna ekonomija je značajno transformisala strukturne parametre ekonomskog pejzaža i umanjila prizmu za vreme i prostor. Ekonomsko srce nove ekonomije je globalni preduzetnik. Pri tome, ni neposredno interpersonalno komuniciranje između ljudi nije više kao nekada. I ovaj oblik komuniciranja se sve više obavlja preko mehaničkih posrednika, pri čemu se kao pošiljaoci ili kao primaoci poruka sve više identifikuju mehanički posrednici. Kakva će biti budućnost čovečanstva sa ovakvim modernizovanim i tehniciziranim sistemima komuniciranja, može samo da se pretpostavlja.

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CHALLENGES AND DIRECTIONS OF DEVELOPING BUSINESS COMMUNICATION ON THE GLOBAL MARKET

Slobodan Rakić[4], Vladimir Adamović[5], Marko Špiler[6]

Abstract

Experts who deal with the essence of communication businesses in the theoretical and practical sense, point out the fact that the process of business communication, at the beginning of the third millennium, conceptually and substantively, has changed greatly. These changes are of a technological nature, but also have a specific political, economic, social, cultural, psychological and any other relevant definition. This paper points to a paradigm shift in the application of information and communication technologies, which is happening due to explosion of technology in society and the impact of globalization on modern business communication. Recomposing the worldview and applying new methods and content is necessary to obtain the relevant effects of business communication. The business world challenges us to use business communication by applying information and communication technologies in the way of the 21st century, not so much in the use of technology, but in the attitudes that shape its use.

Keywords: *communication, globalization, information and communication technologies, social context of business communication.*

Introduction

The time in which we live has reached the highest point in communication. The center of human existence has almost been moved to the space of communication, while information is the most important and most expensive resource today. In that sense, it is very important how and with whom one communicates, how information is selected, processed, interpreted, what it means and how to use it (Milovanović, Jovanović, 2018).

From the beginning of their existence, humans communicate in some way, with other communicatively compatible beings. Communication is a condition of life

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and existence, and especially business in modern-organized social communities. That is why Nykodym (1988) points out that "communication is the heart of any organization". Communication is a fundamental social phenomenon that is widely described in different scientific disciplines, so there is a different understanding of the way this term is used. In the original sense, the meaning of the Latin term *comunicare*, conceptually expresses communication and receiving messages in the conditions of a certain community.

From the historical aspect, communication in the context of Darwin's evolutionary interpretation of the development of man and human society can be conditionally differentiated into the following phases:

7. The first phase of the communicative development of man and human society is related to the period of savagery, which chronologically lasted a very long time. During this period, people communicated with each other through body movements, facial expressions and articulated cries, with a specific meaning;
8. The second phase is characterized by the formation of organized social communities. During this period, reasonable human speech developed, based on meaningful words and sentences;
9. The third phase refers to the creation of the first, historically known and civilized states, which had their own letters, which represented a great, not only communicative, but economic and cultural progress of human society;
10. The fourth phase is characterized by the emergence and development of the printing industry, as a major step forward in the development of means and methods of written communication;
11. The next phase of communicative progress is related to the development of capitalism and the achievements of the first, second and third industrial revolutions. Communication in that period was closely connected with the development of traffic and the creation of the so-called integrated traffic systems;
12. Entering the 21st century, marked the absolute domination of the so-called information and communication industry. This period is characterized by the emergence and increasingly intensive development of the so-called smart machines, which is a sign of technological progress of various types of robots, computers, multi-purpose mobile phones and other, increasingly perfect devices in the domain of so-called artificial intelligence.

The entire process of information and communication technological progress could not take place quickly without being accompanied by other, complex technological, political, economic, cultural, social, psychological and other interconnected planetary processes. These processes are collectively referred to as the globalization processes.

Effects of communication in modern business

In a constant effort to improve their business, most companies pay special attention to communication issues and current communication trends. Simple, clear and targeted communication has long been the basic instrument for the placement of relevant information and a platform for successful business of modern companies. At all levels and in all forms of work and business, communication is the main driver of change in the company, both locally and globally. An integrated and harmonized communication system ensures the realization of pre-designed goals, motivation and full informational awareness of all employees in the company.

At the end of the 20th century, the importance of business communication increased so much that nowadays the importance of communication can't be quantified. This growth has always been accompanied by efforts to establish a clear identity for this research field, because communication is one of the most complex, comprehensive and dynamic activities in the human society (Dobardžić, 2015). Therefore, scientists are still trying to determine the focus and boundaries in defining and redefining the future of this field. The great interest in this subject area can be explained by the importance of communication in companies, or in organizations in general. The basic condition for successful cooperation of employees in a company is the exchange of functional and organizational information. Therefore, communication is a constitutive condition for the emergence, continuity and flexibility of a company (Spieß, Winterstein, 1999). Without the possibility of communication, modern companies would cease to exist. It is a mechanism by which information is transferred and a basis for joint work, so it is essential for all organizational interactions (Bismarck, Bungard, Held, 1999).

Within a company, it strengthens employees' trust in the company's vision and mission, connects employees with the reality of the business, encourages company's development, facilitates changes necessary for progress, and helps change behavior. Outside the environment, the image of the company, the perception of new business opportunities and the relationship with society largely depend on how well designed and implemented the ongoing communication process. Basically, the communication process is not a software function of the company, but a driver of business success, which has a key function in the performance of the company (Mucchielli, 2010).

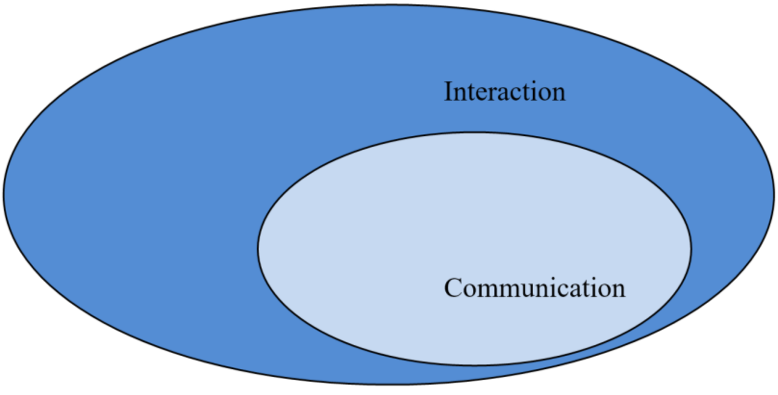
Interaction and communication, two concepts - one meaning

For this paper, it makes sense to point out the relationship between the concepts of interaction and communication. Depending on the basic understanding of the term communication, the terms interaction and communication are also used as synonyms. Characteristics that enable or clarify the difference between them are intention, plan, and system formation (Weick, 1985).

According to Blickle (2004) “Social interaction can be understood as the effect of different people influencing each other ...”. Regarding intention and plan, this statement implies that people can communicate with each other only by their physical presence, without a well-founded intention or plan. An example is the phenomenon of social interaction, in which people's performance changes only with the presence of other people. While performance increases with simple tasks, it decreases with complex tasks. The interaction between them is unintentional, unplanned and may be beyond the knowledge of those interested.

Frindte (2001) believes that “Communication is a social process during which the people involved encourage each other to build reality”. In order to be able to communicate with each other, a common set of symbols is needed, which is usually created through a systemic form that is connected to social and cultural structures (Theis, 1994). On the other hand, social interaction can take place independently. If linguistic and social structures develop in the form of repetitive sequences of interaction, these structures are called communication rules (Blickleu, 2004). If each act of communication leads to an impact on another person, communication can be viewed as a subset of the interaction (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Communication as a subset of interaction



Source: Nikole, 2013

The communication process is a planned process with the basic intention of achieving a certain goal. However, if the interaction lacks intent or even knowledge of the impact, then the interaction is not necessarily communication (Blickleu, 2004).

Business communication functions

The term, business communication in essence includes any form of communication, and thus communication between companies and customers and suppliers, as well as with other external entities. Difficulties in defining business communication arise from the diverse use of the term in different scientific disciplines and the complexity of the phenomenon of communication and business. First and foremost, this term implies the assumption that it is about communication in the company.

Employees in the company who can communicate feel connected to the progress of the business and understand how their actions can support that work. New employees quickly connect with the culture of such a company and cope better with the changes required by management in certain situations. In other words, companies are increasingly communicating, but given technological advances, they prefer faster and more modern ways of sending and receiving messages. Efficient and effective business communication is the basis on which other key factors of the company are built: investments, management, human resources, new ideas, as well as their intelligent use (Coman, 2001).

The assignment of communication functions in the company depends entirely on the organizational understanding and perspective. For Theis (1994), "The importance of communication for enterprises stems from its control function." The formal structures of the company harmonize the activities of employees with the basic organizational goals and thus touch the core of the scientific consideration of this research field (Nerdinger, 2011). In understanding the functions of business communication, Walgenbach (2004) believes that one should start from Max Weber, who is considered the founder of the organizational theory. His analysis of bureaucracy is still relevant today. According to Weber, the emergence of bureaucracy should be viewed in relation to the ability of people to shape the environment through intellectual coping with it. This process takes place at the following levels (Kieser, 2006):

- At the worldview level,

- Practical lifestyle
- Institution.

Transferring the notion of bureaucracy to enterprises, Weber (1972) points out that: “Large, modern capitalist enterprises are themselves models of tight bureaucratic organization.” Regarding the importance of business communication, Kieser (2006) states that “Communication between individual employees takes place through official channels, mainly in writing, through letters, forms, notes, etc.” Written communication ensures the continued existence of the company regardless of changes in employees. Writing all the processes that are considered relevant is still a common way of handling information. However, with the increasing complexity, number of processes and amount of information, companies are facing new problems, such as information congestion, rational storage and structuring of information that requires rapid access. Formalized communication strategies, recording of administrative processes, as well as de-individualization of employees, are the characteristics of most companies to this day. They are based on the assumption that the company's management has all the relevant information and forwards it to the operational organizational units through defined downstream communication channels.

Formal communication

Formally defined communication is limited and shaped by the choice of structure, rules and specifications. This official form of communication refers to the exchange of information about the company and performance. Communication structures and processes are completely separate from the individual who occupies the appropriate position. Formal communication is a part of communication that is directly noticeable and aimed at achieving organizational goals. According to Max Weber, documentation is the characteristic essence of formal communication. With it, all important information about the process remains in the company regardless of the employee or contractor and is generally available to all employees in the company. However, the quantity of available information is almost unlimited. This means that the central task of formal communication is to provide relevant information to certain functional areas in an adequate way, while avoiding the information deficit (Barreto, 2011).

Classic instruments used to institutionalize formal communication are circulators, bulletin boards, workshops, letters with management information, interviews and employee magazines. During electronic development, electronically based instruments were established: e-mails, forums, web conferencing, blogs, intranets, online newsletters, instant messaging, social networking services and video conferencing.

Key difficulties of formal communication are reflected, for example, in terms of documentation, which is considered difficult, and confusing due to the abundance of documented actions. Also, in the field of documentation, due to rapid change in the course of the process, there are difficulties in continuously updating and maintaining the relevance of formalized procedures and processes.

Informal communication

In a general sense, informal communication includes all communication processes that take place outside the organizationally regulated processes. Therefore, it is not directly noticeable and is not subject to organizational control, but avoids it. As the emphasis gradually shifted to the role of social factors in human performance, informal relationships and thus informal communication came into the focus of science and practice. That is why Schreyögg (2003) states "What has been viewed for decades as an unpredictable variable, as a disorder, emotionality, has suddenly been declared a crucial factor in productivity." Why do people look for informal relationships in formal work situations? The most important reason for the existence of such relationships and networks lies in the fact that individuals in companies continue to be social beings during their work. The need for informal exchange arises from the social and psychological function of communication (Katz and Kahn, 1978). Motives of connection, identity and self-esteem, social reality, defense mechanisms, and risk reduction have been identified as psychological reasons for the existence of informal networks (Baker, 1981). The content of informal communication, since it is not information related to work and performance, is based on private topics and therefore topics that "come from the private sphere of the employee or affect him" (Barrreto, 2011).

Waldstrøm (2001) differentiated the main contents of informal networks into four categories:

1. Affective - like friendship, trust and close relationships
2. Productive - such as advice, exchange of technical knowledge and innovation

3. Political - such as influence, power and authority, and
4. Cultural - communication and information flow

These rather unconscious reasons for the existence of informal networks are accompanied by conscious reasons for their emergence, such as the need for knowledge, advice or political maneuvers. As part of the desire to belong, employees in addition to the formal incorporation of search and social integration in the company. Private events like birthdays can play an important role in the workplace. This strengthens the sense of belonging to the group. The egalitarian quality of informal communication has a binding effect on employees in the company and strengthens group cohesion (Kraut et al., 1990).

Separating the formal from informal communication does not disrupt the daily life of the company. "Formal and informal networks exist at the same time, and two people who have formal connections in one situation can have informal connections in another. Furthermore, the same people may have several formal and informal relationships with each other, and the same informal network may be motivated by different factors" (Waldstrøm, 2001). It makes more sense to integrate all communicative processes related to the content of the work and ensure the achievement of the organizational goal. The transition between two forms of communication in companies can be fluid, as Schreiogg (2003) points out: "No company can do without the spontaneous efforts of its employees. Often, formal structures are nothing more than approved orders that have developed in spontaneous processes."

Globalization of the world economy

Globalization is not a new concept. It has evolved and mutated over the centuries to reflect the priorities and ambitions of different generations. The global reach of nations for geopolitical, economic, military and trade benefits has transcended centuries and encompassed almost all countries in the world. Today, globalization is one of the most important achievements of economic development and modernization. Major changes in the world economy are characterized by the establishment of complex ties and relations between countries and companies at the global level, and a series of global imbalances that occur as a direct consequence of economic interdependence of national economies in the world economy. Around the world, countries are connected in a multidimensional network of economic, social, and political ties and relations. To the extent that these connections are more significant and complex, individual national economies feel more or less all the positive and negative effects of general trends in the world economy.

Some theorists point to globalization as a qualitatively new level of development of human society, which in a general sense consists of three dimensions - economic, social and political. Although globalization is primarily seen as an economic phenomenon, theorists from various scientific fields are increasingly emphasizing that it is a complex cultural process that initiates a fundamental restructuring of human life in the postmodern world. Complex social, economic and political processes overlap, intertwine and create new margins that make up new institutional structures. From this perspective, traditional notions, such as state and nation, are considered historical constructions, which represent the fixation of former conditions, which have been incorporated into more stable structures, both internally and internationally (Granovetter, M. 1992). The role of the nation state in the era of globalization differs significantly from its role in the era of mercantilism, while the incentives for the globalization of enterprises comes from economies of scale, i.e. the expansion of business activities. For Friedman (2012): "Globalization is a process of economic, social, cultural and political action that transcends the borders of nation states." Stiglitz (2002) sees globalization "... through the removal of barriers to free trade and stronger integration of national economies." The notion of globalization became especially relevant in the 1960s, although even then many authors and researchers considered it to be too meaningless, citing as arguments the limitation of global processes to developed countries that contribute to the marginalization of developing countries.

Many authors point out a number of positive aspects of globalization. For example, the more money is poured into developing countries, the better the chances of people in those countries to succeed economically and increase their standard of living. Governments work better together on common goals when there is an advantage in cooperation and global awareness of problems. Greater access to foreign culture is in the form of movies, music, food, clothes, etc. In short, the world has more choices. However, all the breakthroughs in these directions are incomplete liberalization of the economies of developed countries. The partial nature of this process is itself a reflection of the protectionist practice that still dominates the world today. Also, developing countries face the challenge of adapting their policies to the institutional mechanisms imposed by developed countries. The explosive pace of global financial development has created opportunities for financing and hedging against financial risk, but it has opened up major problems caused by the asymmetry that exists between the strength of market forces and the weakness of the institutional frameworks that regulate them. The coexistence of financial globalization and national macroeconomic policies, which continue to be formulated on the basis of domestic interests and contexts, creates significant tensions for developing countries. Also, developing countries are threatened by the globalization of financial instability, which has negative effects on economic growth and social equality (Rodrik, 2001).

Financial instability is the clearest, but not the only manifestation of the progressive asymmetry between market power and the lack of adequate economic governance. Other manifestations include significant economic concentration around the world and multiple distributive tensions caused by the process of globalization between and within countries. These phenomena are part of a series of old and new threats to the economic and social security of the population, whose position is becoming increasingly uncertain with the progressive weakening of a whole range of social security networks. One of the problems is strong tensions that arise between homogeneity and cultural diversity. The second is the huge distance between symbolic integration into a globalized world and insufficient capacity for real integration due to sharp inequalities that exist in the today’s world. Many of these problems stem from the incomplete and asymmetric nature of the policy associated with the current phase of the globalization process. Numerous debates in recent years have called for a new international architecture for the global age based on a broad agenda and a representative and pluralistic negotiation process. Such a global agenda should include correcting international inequalities and asymmetries (Kaul, 2013).

In the conditions of great changes and dynamic development of human society, the globalization process has brought great changes in technology, business, politics, cultural and public life of all countries. There has been a unification of technological, organizational and cultural standards of information, communication and overall business at the planetary level. Despite numerous contradictions, the process of globalization cannot be avoided, because globalization is an inseparable process of development of international relations and political, cultural and economic interactions in today's world-global scene.

Consequences of the globalization process on the business communication system

To be successful and efficient in a dynamic, changing and competitive global world, states and businesses need to rethink their roles and recompose themselves in order to operate safely and productively in the global marketplace. Modern business requires new work practices and a flexible workforce. This means that employees must communicate directly with each other in a wide range of new business activities, and success in business relies heavily on how well employees can communicate. In the field of modern business, communication has penetrated almost all aspects of the profession: from marketing to production, from quality assurance to after-sales maintenance (Grin, 2001). The 1990s intensified the trend of accelerated development of information and communication technologies, and the blurring of boundaries between time and space. The accelerated development of mass communications has influenced the reduction of time distance, the rapprochement of distant lands and the creation of a global culture (Robertson, 1992).

In the first phase of development, the globalization process was most intensively manifested in the field of IT and communication, and then causally and consequently, reflected in other areas of human creativity. It is wrong to think that the process of globalization is exclusively a phenomenon of technical-technological character. The reflection of the process of globalization on human reasoning and behavior, both in business and in personal and social life, is much broader, and has different dimensions and contents of manifestation. Human behavior is conditioned by new information and communication technologies and global social changes. With the advent of new technologies, global society has changed the way we do business and communicate remotely, and accelerated the flow of information through the use of new media. Real-world contacts are increasingly being replaced by virtual contacts. Within the global system, the core resources are information, knowledge, networking, remote management and communication.

Kaplan's (2003) view of the reflection of globalization on business communication is interesting: “... globalization is not only good news, but current news. And the news can be more and more worrying, because it brings with it much bigger complications than it can provide stability.” The way of communicating in the digital age has completely changed, primarily due to the trends and challenges imposed by the Internet and digital media in modern business. The need for a global language was initiated by electronic communication, which changed the way languages are used. New forms of communication and language have emerged, that have become necessary in communication through new media.

The importance of business communication and its impact on the success of the company has become a critical research area of global communication. There are three key factors that have encouraged and accelerated the development of business communication in the process of globalization:

1. Growing integration of world economies
2. Development and dissemination of information technology
3. Explosive growth of the Internet.

The situation in business communication is internationalized by tendencies of globalization. With intensive connections between local and multinational companies through application of new information and communication technologies, the role of communication in the business world has been raised to a much higher level qualitatively. The problem of the relationship between globalization and communication in the sphere of business is only a fragment of the whole process. It is obvious that the globalization of communication will take place in different countries, regions, at different paces and in different forms.

Communication technologies in modern business

Revolution of information and communication technology has profoundly changed the structural parameters and modus operandi of most national economies. The transformation from industrial to information age has resulted in the restructuring of the working environment, the creation of new economic institutions and reconfiguration of the macroeconomic system. Information and communication technologies represent a diverse collection of technological equipment and resources used for communication, as well as for generating, distributing, collecting and administering information. They consist of hardware, software, networks and media for the collection, storage, processing, transmission and presentation of information, as well as related services. They can be divided into two components:

1. Communication infrastructure - refers to physical telecommunications systems and networks (cellular, broadcast, cable, satellite, postal) and the services that use them (Internet, voice, mail, radio and television), and

2. Information technology - refers to hardware and software for collecting, storing, processing and presenting information.

At the heart of the information and communication revolution is the vital process of commercializing scientific discoveries and new inventions, because the path from invention to innovation is long and full of obstacles. The list of inventions attributed to the global economy is still in its infancy, but already includes computers, the Internet and telecommunication devices. The role of information and communication technology in the development process of globalization was crucial. Modern means of communication, in addition to their own progress, directly affect the complex exchange of knowledge between other areas of social creativity, encouraging directly or indirectly their development. The collapse of time and space with the application of information and communication technologies has shifted the physical with the virtual Internet market for business between companies and business with consumer transactions.

The contributions that modern information and communication technology provides to people in the field of modern business should not be emphasized. Not only business information and communication, which is happening faster and faster between business entities thanks to modern technology, but also the final type of business, such as concluding business contracts, delivery of goods and payment, today in modern business systems is being done exclusively electronically. However, it should be pointed out that everything in the mentioned domain is not as positive and socially useful as at first sight. Modern and technologically advanced information and communication systems create conditions for performing the so-called virtual business, which is becoming more massive and diverse. It is a business based on diverse and thoughtful speculations, especially of a financial nature. Certainly, the business of the real type suffers due to this application of modern information and communication technology, and subordinated to banks, investment companies, financial funds, etc., comes to an inferior position in relation to businesses of the virtual type. On a personal level, the excessive use of computers in order to plunge into a challenging but problematic cyberspace, has already created new addictive diseases, which lead careless users into serious problems.

When observing the integration of information and communication technologies to support the achievement of business communication goals, it can be said that after almost a decade of use to encourage the development of business communication, it is still not fully integrated into the communication system and employee awareness is still needed.

Political implications of the development of information and communication technologies

Thanks to the accelerated development of information and communication technologies, political relations between states and their governments and other political entities are becoming more and more direct. The rule is that countries with more developed information and communication systems are superior in other domains, especially technological, economic, military and political, in relation to countries that are, in relation to them, inferior in that respect. The superiority and subordination between individual countries, on a planetary level and on a communicative basis, is extremely visible. Modern information and communication systems create a political map and greatly influence the relations of political forces within individual countries. Thanks to the media with quality visual-auditory explanations, famous politicians, with their public appearances, today enter virtually every home, which creates a different picture of the above, compared to the previous situation, when the electorate could not get to know them so directly.

Economic consequences of the development of information and communication technologies

The greatest influence of modern information and communication technologies is reflected in the sphere of globalized world business. As connoisseurs of development events, they imaginatively point out “The world has become one big village”, in which it is well known who produces and does what. It is in this domain that the mutual superiority and inferiority of individual states and companies is most pronounced, in terms of information and communication equipment and economic power, which is directly reflected in each individual business situation. In other words, countries that have more technologically advanced information and communication systems and more communicative business infrastructure are in a much more favorable and superior economic position, compared to countries that are more modest in their communication and business interactions and relations. Moreover, many economic reports of a comparative nature, as an objective indicator of economic and social development in general, state the technological level of progress of information and communication infrastructure, which some countries have.

Until recently, each country and nation had its own, original national culture of life and work, which reflected its specifics from country to country. At the cultural level, under the influence of globalization, rapid changes have taken place in recent decades. All national cultures are more or less losing their national and regional identity. If some features are nurtured and retained, it is mostly the so-called relics of the obsolete past, which have exclusively tourist value. A clear reflection of a nation is no longer a strongly expressed national culture, but the economic, military and political power with which the nation is represented in international communication, economic and political relations. It is evident that different national and regional cultures, under the influence of the global system of information and communication, mix and summarize, and give the product of a new typed, standardized and unified planetary culture of the New Age. It is naive to think that all nations and all national cultures have equal influence and influence on the creation of a global planetary culture. This culture is created and spread primarily from the cultural area of the USA and to some extent Great Britain, and as a sinking cultural wave it floods all nations and countries of the modern world. Thanks to the globalized media and communication, all people on the planet, if their financial possibilities allow it, eat, dress, educate, have fun in a similar way and perform all other functions of their work and life in a similar cultural way.

Social consequences of global communication

Based on the above, one gets the impression that global-shaped communication and social events on the national and planetary level are not in a practical connection. This impression is wrong, because this connection exists, and through the adopted global system of economy, it directly affects the social processes that take place in the modern world. The basic feature of social processes is expressed through the accelerated process of social stratification of the entire population in the whole world, both at the national and world level. In other words, fewer and fewer people are getting richer, while at the same time more and more people are getting poorer. The role of the media and communication is basically extremely manipulative. In a direct or indirect way, these media spread the idea that humanity, lives in the best democratic ideological, economic and social order in the historical sense and that this order has no alternative, i.e. that the dominating corporate capitalism is the best that people in economic and social terms have been able to achieve so far. The great deception that is placed through the media of mass information and communication is unreservedly accepted, which is just proof of the fact that there is no serious ideological criticism of this system.

Conclusion

The exposition points to the fact that modern business systems and personal communication in the globalized civilization of the New Age acquire completely different forms and contents, compared to few decades ago. Other than the means and equipment for performing communication interactions, the interests and goals of communicators (senders of messages) which they have in relation to their recipients (recipients of messages) are changing. The economic profile of the global economy is driven by technology, encouraged by innovation and entrepreneurial initiative, and is based on new ideas, perspectives and new business strategies. At the same time, the global economy has changed the economic landscape and straightened ties between different sectors of the economy. In short, technological innovation and entrepreneurial initiative mark the life in the global economy of the 21st century. The global economy has significantly transformed the structural parameters of the economic landscape and reduced the prism of time and space. The economic heart of the new economy is the global entrepreneur. At the same time, direct interpersonal communication between people is no longer as it used to be. This form of communication is also increasingly performed through mechanical intermediaries, with mechanical intermediaries increasingly being identified as senders or recipients of messages. One can only guess what the future of humanity will be like with such modernized and technicalized communication systems.

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IZBOR, STVARANJE I RAZVOJ MENADŽERA

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Apstrakt

Selekcija osoba koje će baviti poslovima menadžmenta je od presudnog značaja za uspešno poslovanje svake organizacije. Ovaj proces podrazumeva uvažavanje svih relevantnih sposobnosti koje treba da poseduju kandidati, karakterne osobine, stavovi i uvažavanje autoriteta kandidata od strane grupe kojom treba da upravlja. Razlog sprovođenja adekvatnog postupka selekcije menadžera su brojna saznanja da upravljačkih problema ima puno, ali da je veoma mali broj dovoljno efikasnih upravljača.

Cilj ovog rada je da ukaže na karakteristike koje treba identifikovati prilikom selekcije menadžera radi ostvarivanja uspešnih poslovnih rezultata.

Ključne reči: *preduzeće, menadžeri, selekcija.*

JEL: *M12, M19.*

Uvod

Efikasnost i efektivnost organizacionih sistema u velikoj meri zavise od menadžera koji upravljaju istim.

Dobar menadžer treba da poznaje rad sa ljudima (pojedinci, male i velike grupe), organizaciju sistema kojim upravlja i tehnološke procese u

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organizacionom sistemu kojim upravlja. Takođe, potrebe prakse, zahtevi vremena i savremeni trendovi zahtevaju od menadžera posedovanje i primenu finansijskih, pravnih, opšteekonomskih i drugih aspekata upravljanja. Obim i intenzitet upravljačkih zahteva produkuju da menadžer mora imati adekvatan tim ljudi kako bi uspeo da izvrši zadatke, ostvari rezultate i dostigne ciljeve koje pred njega postavlja osnivač ili vlasnik preduzeća.

Obavljajujući poslove u okviru svog radnog mesta menadžer rešava ljudske, organizacione i stručne probleme, s time da su stručni i organizacioni problemi takođe problemi ljudske prirode.

Od menadžera se zahteva mnogo, ali on je ipak samo čovek koji svojim stilom rada i tehnikama koje primenjuje u radu treba ostavriti maksimalnu sinergiju svog znanja i energije i znanja i energije svojih saradnika.

Od njega se zahteva da razume misiju i strategiju za dostizanje misije organizacije i da uspešno sprovodi strategiju, kroz izvršenje zadataka, ostvarenje rezultata i dostizanje ciljeva.

Posao menadžera

Tejlor je još govorio da je najvažniji faktor veštine rukovođenja odnos između poslodavca i i radnika i to u cilju postizanja da radnici rade što bolje, što jevtinije i da im je radno vreme što više iskorišteno.

Menadžer generiše ideje, motiviše zapošljene i donosi poslovne i druge odluke.

Tri osnovne funkcije menadžmenta(Hortense, 2021):

- upravljanje i rukovođenje poslovanjem;
- upravljanje i rukovođenje rukovodiocima i
- upravljanje i rukovođenje radnicima i radom.

Elementi funkcije rukovođenja su:

- planiranje, u smislu planiranja budućnosti (stanja, ponašanja, redosled akcija),
- organizovanje u smislu pripremanja,
- naređivanje (komandovanje),
- koordiniranje i
- kontrolisanje.

Peter Drucker[5] u razmatranju rada rukovodioca insistira na formiranju osoblja, komunikacijama i motivisanju a ističe da rukovodilac obavlja sledeće operacije:

- postavlja ciljeve,
- organizuje,
- motiviše i komunicira,
- meri i ocenjuje postignute rezultate,
- razvija ljude.

Druker insistira na "kvantitativnom aspektu rukovođenja", traži od rukovodioca da ciljeve definišu u brojkama i merljivim veličinama, da stvore instrumente za merenje postignutih rezultata i da rezultate mere i ocenjuju zajedno s članovima kolektiva(Andrejić i dr., 2021).

Elementi funkcije rukovođenja primereni našim uslovima su: planiranje, priprema, obaveštavnje i dogovaranje, koordiniranje, analiza i ocena rezultata (kontrola), uzdizanje kadrova (vaspitni rad).

Među mnogobrojnim ulogama menadžera na svim organizacijskim nivoima najčešće se navode sledeće funkcije menadžera(Sokolov i dr. 2019):

- planiranje, organizovanje i kontrole,
- postavljanje ciljeva, planiranje, organizovanje, vođenje, i kontrola
- donošenje odluka, organizovanje, izgradnja kolektiva, planiranje, kontrolisanje, komuniciranje i usmeravanje.

Bez obzira na hijerarhijski nivo u organizaciji menadžeri svih nivoa obavljaju slične poslove. Razlika postoji u obimu pojedinih vrsta poslova koje obavljaju menadžeri pojedinih nivoa.

Menadžeri različitih nivoa menadžmenta, se razlikuju(Stanković i Milenkovič, 2018):

- po količini vremena koje troše za obavljanje pojedinih menadžerskih funkcija (planiranje, organizovanje, vođenje i kontrola);
- po ciljevima koje utvrđuju na pojedinim nivoima menadžmenta;
- po odlukama koje donose (rutinske i nerutinske odluke);
- po složenosti (struktuiranosti) problemima koje rešavaju, učetalosti odluka koje donose i obimu angažovanja u iniciranju i sprovođenju promena;

[5] Peter Drucker. The Practice of Management", W.Heinemann, London,1955

- orjentisanost u delovanju (interna; kombinacija interne i eksterne orjentisanosti**).**

Uspešan rad menadžera zahteva vladanje određenim tehnikama i veštinama rukovođenja, koje se stiču kroz formalno obrazovanje, edukaciju kroz čitv radni vek i kroz operativnu praksu: intervjuisanje, podučavanje, izdavanje naloga, vođenje sastanaka, javno govorništvo, pisanje izveštaja, brzo čitanje, korištenje brojčanih podataka, tehnika rešavanja problema, donošenje odluka, metoda izučavanja slučajeva, planiranje organizacije, metode više matematike, statistike i operacionih istraživanja koje tretiraju kvantitativni aspekt rukovođenja i omogućavaju donošenje odluka na bazi činjenica a ne na osnovu subjektivnog osećaja i iskustva. Ove etode omogućavaju da se procene verovatni rezultati jedne odluke.

Od rukovodioca se zahteva:

- da definiše politiku organizacije koju stvara;
- da od grupe ljudi stvara i stvori organizaciju koja može da funkcioniše i realizuje zadatke;
- da nađe način da od članova radnog izvuče maksimum;

Ponašanje rukovodioca zavisi od ličnosti rukovodioca i njegovog znanja, vaspitanja, samostalnosti i odgovornosti, vrste posla i karaktera zadataka, ličnosti, znanja, vaspitanja, samostalnosti i odgovornosti ljudi sa kojima se rukovodi.

Svojstva rukovodioca i njegov lik

L.Urwick u svom radu pod nazivom ”16 questions about training and selection of managers” smatra da rukovodioca treba da odlikuju hrabrost, snaga volje, elastičnost u postupanju sa ljudima i znanje, odnosno: odlučnost i hrabrost, izvanredna energija i snaga volje, elastičnost, osećaj mere i takt, stručno znanje i široki vidici, odanost radnoj grupi, užoj i široj organizaciji, poštenje, postojanost karaktera i duboka vera u ljude(Austin & Williams, 2021).

Tabela 1. Svojstva idealnog rukovodioca (za potrebe privrede) rangirana prema redosledu kako su ga definisali rukovodioci raznih zemalja.

	SAD	Belgija	Severna Francuska	Istočna Francuska
Nervna i fizička energija	1	8	9	9
Doslednost, odvažnost	2	5	1	1
Oduševljenje	3	3	5	5
Razumevanje ljudi	4	6	4	4
Integritet	5	2	2	5
Majstorstvo u tehnikama	6	10	8	7
Čvrstoća karaktera	7	7	7	8
Inteligencija	8	4	5	2
Pedagoški smisao	9	9	10	10
Ulivanje poverenja	10	1	3	3

Izvor: Cambrea et al., 2021

U potrazi za takvim načinom ponašanja kojim bi se stimulisao učinak razrađena je psihologija rukovođenja koja obuhvata: izbor rukovodioca i razvoj njegovih harizmatskih osobina.

Analizirajući veliki broj uspešnih rukovodioca, došlo se do saznanja da rukovodioci trebaju, pored ostalih, da poseduju i sledeće karakteristike (Nadoveza & Pešić, 2020):

- Poznavanje ljudi zasnovano na iskustvu koje podrazumeva shvatanje njihove složenosti i celovitosti i intuitivna obdarenost da osete za koji posao se ko može najuspešnije koristiti na poslovima unutar grupe. Polazne pretpostavke za poznavanje ljudi su sposobnost uživljavanja i snaga predočavanja koja je usmerena na praktična pitanja.
- Sugestivnost odnosno sposobnost da se lična volja prenese na druge i da se drugi podstaknu na aktivnost. Polazne pretpostavke za ovu sposobnost jesu unutrašnja sigurnost, lična ubeđenost u cilj, samodisciplina i jaka volja.

Navedene sposobnosti se razvijaju kod rukovodioca putem školovanja za rukovodioce.

Iz navedenog se može zaključiti da treba vršiti selekciju ljudi koji se biraju za rukovodioce i sistemski ih školovati uz maksimalno uvažavanje osobina selekcijom izabranih kandidata.

Nakon drugog svetskog rata, pod rukovodstvom Hansa Blasha u "Institutu za primenjenu psihologiju - IAP" vršeno je obrazovanje rukovodećih kadrova gde se insistiralo na unapređivanju i stimulisanju ličnosti rukovodioca(Wang et al., 2019).

Prema Blashu, da bi se postigao psihološki cilj kurseva za rukovodioce, u toku struktuiranja kursa i u toku samog kursa, glavne osobine rukovodioca i važne dodatne osobine rukovodioca se moraju didaktički i na drugi način uzeti i različito tretirati.

Glavne osobine rukovodioca su(Avakumović i dr., 2021):

- inicijativa, radišnost, samoinicijativnost,
- prirodno samopouzdanje a bez nekog prenaglašavanja vlastite važnosti,
- svest o odgovornosti,
- sklonost poduzetništvu i sklonost riziku za "dobru stvar",
- sposobnost sagledavanja ličnih grešaka i njihovog ispravljanja,
- stvarni autoritet umesto autokratskog ponašanja,
- solidarnost i povezanost u poslu,
- lični integritet ličnosti na radnom mestu i izvan njega,
- lična zrelost.

Važne dodatne osobine rukovodioca su: poznavanje svoje struke i dotične branše, školovanje mišljenja, snaga uma, kritika, pregled nad metodama sticanja uvida i ovladavanje njima, radna disciplina, doslednost, tačnost i pouzdanost.

Posle prvog Švajcarskog kursa za rukovođenje preduzećem, održanog 1954. godine, nastaje novo razdoblje u rukovođenju nazvano "određivanje ciljeva"(Gorges & Holz-Rau, 2021).

Pod uticajem američke teorije sledi se geslo "ciklus rukovođenja" a to je orijentacija, donošenje odluke, realizacija(Lukichev & Romanovich, 2016).

Pretpostavke o ciljevima postaju uočljivije pa se lakše mogu i kontrolisati.

Svako rukovođenje pretpostavlja postojanje nekog cilja. Ostvarenje toga cilja zahteva što potpuniju pretpostavku o njegovoj vrsti i karakteru. Određivanje ciljeva mora se vršiti uz neprekidno razmatranje raspoloživih resursa i mogućnosti, uticaja okruženja i procenu razvojnih mogućnosti (Spanellis et al., 2021.).

Utvrđivanje (postavljanje) ciljeva, kako bi njihova realizacija uspela, zahteva postojanje razrađene koncepcije.

Odvija se u nekoliko faza(Damnjanović i dr., 2020):

- Fazu formiranja mišljenja u kojoj se vrši ocena položaja i ocena tendencija razvoja;
- Fazu formiranja htijenja (težnji) u kojoj se vrši izbor iz ranije razmatranih mogućnosti i donosi se odluka;
- **Fazu ostvarivanja cilja (realizacije)** kroz formulisanje zadataka, praćenje ostvarivanja zadataka i procenu postignutih rezultata."

Poželjne osobine rukovodioca

Svaka profesija pa i profesija rukovođenja traži specifičnu nadarenost i specifične crte karaktera. Rukovodioca osim opšteljudskih kvaliteta (inteligencija, energija, kreativnost, volja i čvrst karakter) trebaju krasiti i posebni kvaliteti koji se odnose na sposobnost pravilnog izbora i razvoja kadrova te poznavanje ljudi i njihovih problema, pravilno procenjivanje njihovih prednosti i nedostataka i pravilno korištenje njihovih sposobnosti.

Različiti autori u svojim istraživanjima navode različite klasifikacije osobina i različite osobine koje su poželjne za rukovodioca(Simić, 2020).

Od menadžera se zahteva da, pored efikasnog i efektivnog realizovanja, medžerskih zadataka poseduje i liderske sklonosti odnosno da uživa veliki lični autoritet i moć i da je u stanju da uspešno obavlja sve funkcije i procese menadžmenta (planiranje, organizovanje, kadrovi, vođenje, kontrola, koordinacija, dodela zadataka).

Osim navedenog od rukovodioca se zahteva da može da probleme brzo uočava, sagledava široko i duboko, a pri tome brzo, brzo dijagnostikuje i odvaja bitno od nebitnog i da se kroz organizacioni sistem kreće efikasno.

Bitne osobine ličnosti na koje treba obratiti pažnju prilikom izbora rukovodioca jesu: temperament, interesi, karakter i sposobnosti a one se u izvesnoj meri mogu utvrditi na osnovu određenih kvalitativnih i kvantitativnih pokazatelja. Takođe, treba voditi računa i o znanjima koja poseduje rukovodioc, o njegovom dotadašnjem misaonom i radnom angažovanju u svim fazama životnog ciklusa sistema (stabilna stanja sistema, krizne situacije i stanja,...), ponašanju i javnom (društvenom) delovanju(Mihajlović i dr., 2018).

Da bi izbor bio adekvatan vrlo je važno da rukovodilac poseduje određena svojstva: razvijen intelekt, široka opšta kultura, dobra profesionalna i idejno-politička priprema, dobra usklađenost karaktera i temperamenta, umešnost pažljivog odnosa prema zahtevima i žalbama saradnika, umešnost vođenja organizacije (grupe) i učenja od nje.

Lični kvalitet rukovodioca mnogo i direktno utiče na motivaciju i zadovoljstvo ljudi u grupi i na na karakter odnosa među članovima grupe.

Danas su istraživanja usmerena u dva pravca:

1) Istraživanju ličnih osobina, socijalnog porekla i pozadine kao i celovitih ličnosti u traganju za time kako stvoriti dobrog rukovodioca i

2) Analiza poslova rukovodioca (zasnovana na tome šta rukovodioci rade i šta bi trebalo da rade).

Ličnost rukovodioca predstavlja kompleks različitih kvaliteta koji obuhvataju:

- moralne osobine: visoko razvijena socijalna svest i socijalno osećanje; smisao za ekonimiju; odlučnost; preduzimljivost; osećanje odgovornosti;
- intelektualne sposobnosti: metodičnost u mišljenju i radu; objektivnost; realizam i praktičan smisao; sposobnost ubeđivanja;
- fizičke osobine: telesno i duševno zdravlje; vitalnost; izdržljivost; lep izgled;
- znanje i iskustvo: opšte obrazovanje i stručno obrazovanje i rad na poslovima rukovodioca odnosno školama za rukovodioce, minuli rad na obrazovanju i vaspitanju rukovodilaca ili sličnim.

Različiti autori u svojim istraživanjima navode različite klasifikacije osobina i različite osobine koje su poželjne za rukovodioca .

Kod razmatranja osobina rukovodioca treba uočiti neke urođene imanentna svojstva ličnosti i svojstva koja se stiču vaspitanjem i obrazovanjem.

S obzirom da je rukovodioc i radna snaga nužno je poznavati i određene poželjne karakteristike radne snage uopšte.

Takođe, sve osobine rukovodioca možemo klasifikovati na(Halabi et al., 2019)

- opšte - koje su poželjne za svakog rukovodioca, bez obzira na statusnu poziciju u organizaciji i vrstu posla kojim se bavi organizacija kojom rukovodi i
- posebne - koje su uslovljene specifičnos posla kojima se bavi organizacija.
- Statusna pozicija rukovodioca određuje dozvoljena odstupanja poželjnih vrednosti pojedinih opštih karakteristika - osobina rukovodioca.

Svaka ličnost je ukupnost sklonosti, emocionalnosti i motiva iz kojih se u određenim uslovima razvijaju određeni atributi ličnosti(Chernobai et al., 2021):

- iz sklonosti se razvijaju sposobnosti,
- iz emocionalnosti se razvija temperament,
- iz motiva se razvijaju ambicije.

To znači da se od rukovodioca, kao radne snage zahteva da hoće, može, zna i ume sa velikim žarom da radi.

Da bi se dobile poželjne osobine aktivnog rukovodioca neophodno je kultivisanje urođenih imanentnih obeležja čoveka i adekvatno obrazovanje i vaspitanje.

Postoje različite vrste klasifikacija poželjnih osobina radne snage. Fajol je insistirao na zdravlju, inteligenciji, moralu, opštem obrazovanju, stručnom obrazovanju i iskustvu.

Postoji klasifikacija poželjnih osobina radne snage na:

- lične karakteristike (zdravlje, inteligencija, vrednoća, veština - spretnost, preduzimljivost, disciplinovanost);
- radne karakteristike radne snage (stav prema psolu, stručno obrazovanje, iskustvo);
- karakteristike civilizovanosti radne snage (opšte obrazovanje, stav prema kolektivu, stav prema čoveku, stav prema društvu)

Klasifikacija poželjnih osobina ličnosti rukovodioca (zahteva) se može izvršiti, prema vrstama poslova koje obavlja rukovodioc, na (Davila et al., 2009; Pavlićević i Radenović, 2020):

- osobine poželjne za donošenje odluka (inteligencija, analitički duh, sposobnost predviđanja, odlučnost, optimizam, prihvatanje odgovornosti, doslednost, samokritičnost);
- za delegiranje (sposobnost procenjivanja ljudi, sposobnost planiranja, sposobnost uočavanja funkcionisanja organizacije, položajni autoritet);
- za komuniciranje (opšta kultura, komunikativnost, veština izražavanja, lični autoritet, civilizovanost);
- za koordinisanje (sposobnost uočavanja funkcionisanja celine, veze delova unutar celine, potcelina u celini i veza celine sa višom celinom; sposobnost uočavanja kretanja i tendencija, iskustvo u radu s ljudima, integrativne sposobnosti, iskustvo u struci);
- za kontrolisanje (poznavanje prirode i zahteva kontrole, tehnološka disciplinovanost, smisao za red, osećanje mere i poznavanje kriterijuma za dopuštena odstupanja);
- za uzdizanje kadrova (radne navike, ekspeditivnost, stručni autoritet, skromnost, umerenost, psihička uravnoteženost, sposobnost podučavanja, nesebičnost, društvenoplitičko obrazovanje);
- za stimulisanje (inicijativnost, industrijska psihologija, kolaborativnost);
- za intervenisanje (objektivnost pri izboru prinuda, određivanju obaveza, postavljanju zahteva i traženju obzira)

Javljanje potrebe za pobrojanim zahtevima je promenljivo u vremenu i zvisi od slučaja do slučaja. S obzirom da sve navedene zahteve nemože nijedan rukovodioc da zadovolji, od svakog rukovodioca se zahteva da se neprekidno informiše, analizira situaciju, donosi odluke, sgaledava trendove i kontinuirano se osposobljava.

Iz većine analiza mogu se izvući sledeće osobine koje je poželjno da budu zastupljene kod rukovodioca (Spenceley, Snyman & Eagles, 2021):

- da je više orijentisan prema društvu i prema grupi a manje prema samom sebi i ličnim preokupacijama, da je dinamičan i mobilan ;
- da je širokog interesovanja, postojanih i usklađenih interesa;
- da teži ka kolektivizmu i humanosti, otvorenost, učtivost i skromnost;
- da je svestan značaja svog rada i njegovog doprinosa radu grupe;

- da prihvata dužnost rukovodioca, da je dobrovoljno izvršava i da se emotivno za nju vezuje;
- sistematičnost, upornost da se savladaju teškoće, inicijativnost za pronalaženje novih načina u rešavanju zadataka;
- odanost timu (radnoj grupi), široj i užoj organizaciji;
- posmatračke sposobnosti, fleksibilna misao, sposobnost predstavljanja, upoređivanja, zaključivanja i uopštavanja;
- treba da je hrabar, spreman da se susretne s opasnošću i nelagodnošću i prihvati odgovornost za donetu odluku i preduzetu akciju;
- intelektualne sposobnosti, sposobnost pamćenja i posmatranja;
- sposobnost da okuplja ljude oko sebe i gradi tim (sposobnost za timski rad);
- sposobnost brzog uspostavljanja dobrih uzajamnih odnosa sa drugim ljudima;
- sposobnost dobrog komuniciranja sa ljudima;
- sposobnost nametanja svojih predloga i rešenja drugima;
- sposobnost shvatanja načina na koji se složeni projekti realizuju;
- sposobnost procenjivanja ličnosti kroz ustanovljavanje dominantne konfiguracije njihovih potreba;
- visok stepen frustracione tolerancije i emocionalne stabilnosti;
- visok stepen elastičnosti i adaptibilnosti;
- spremnost da preuzme odgovornost i rizik;
- visok nivo aspiracija;
- veliko iskustvo u rešavanju sličnih problema;
- moć u pridobijanju ljudi da dobrovoljno sarađuju;
- povoljne biofiziološke osobine (zdravlje, radna kondicija, starosna dob, antropološke crte, ..);
- da poseduje određene harizmatske osobine:
    - sposobnost da proceni na kojim poslovima se ko može najuspešnije koristiti unutar grupe, zasnovana na uživljavanju u situaciju i predočavanju stanja;
    - sugestivnost odnosno sposobnost ubeđivanja i pregovaranja, da se lična volja prenese na druge i da se drugi podstaknu na dobrovoljnu saradnju i aktivnost, zasnovana na unutrašnjoj sigurnosti, ličnoj ubeđenosti u cilj, samodisciplini i jakoj volji;
    - da je po prirodi optimista.

Od rukovodioca se traži da bude i lider i menadžer odnosno da uživa veliki lični autoritet i moć i da je u stanju da uspešno obavlja sve funkcije i procese menadžmenta (planiranje, organizovanje, kadrovi, vođenje, kontrola, koordinacija, dodela zadataka).

Osim navedenog od rukovodioca se zahteva da može da probleme brzo uočava, sagledava široko i duboko a pri tome brzo, brzo dijagnosticira i odvaja bitno od nebitnog i da se kroz sistem kreće efikasno.

Poželjni stavovi rukovodioca

Poželjni stavovi koje treba posedovati (odnosno usvojiti kao svoje) rukovodilac (u odnosu na sebe, ostale pojedince, projektnu grupu i posao koji realizuje projektna grupa) mogu se različito klasifikovati, s obzirom na objekat stava i usvojeni kriterijum klasifikacije.

Neki opšti stavovi koji moraju biti sastavni deo ličnosti rukovodioca i koji su neophodna polazna osnova za uspešan rad jesu sledeći: čovek je krajnja mera svih vrednosti; ponašanje rukovodioca ima presudan značaj na stav prema radu i ponašanju, ostalih za projekat značajnih ljudi, tokom svih faza u "životnom ciklusu projekta"; za uspeh projekta vrlo je bitan kvalitetan izbor, obrazovanje i razvoj; tim koji realizuje složeni zadatak - projekat nije samo ekonomska ili vojna već i društvena jedinica; kad god je moguće treba saslušati i druge; poštovanje i uvažavanje sagovornika; treba verovati ljudima i njihovoj odgovornosti ali i proveravati jer ljudi idu linijom manjeg otpora, skloni su opuštanju i greškama; rukovodilac ne sme biti sujetan i ne treba se svetiti se ljudima; rukovodilac treba ličnim primerom pokazati drugima kako se radi ("pokaži - pa traži" odnosno "pokaži i traži", kad god je moguće i opravdano); rukovodilac nesme previše isticati sebe u prvi plan već treba da vodi i gradi tim i da omogući i ostalima da dođu do izražaja i iskažu svoje vrednosti; rukovodilac treba obavljati poslove preko drugih ljudi a eksponirati se samo kad zaista mora; za značajne odluke koje su usaglašene verbalnim komunikacijama potrebno je pismenim putem (tajno izjašnjavanje) tražiti njihovu potvrdu; pojedinac uključen u složen poduhvat koji realizuje grupa ljudi ili organizacija mora znati odnos njegovog zadatka prema celini ili barem višem nivou agregacije; kvalitet svakog proizvoda i proizvodnost proizvođača tog proizvoda zavise od rukovodećih (upravljačkih) struktura; rukovodioc treba da odlučuje o svemu što nije propisano i o dopuštenim odstupanjima od onoga što je propisano ali u granicama odstupanja koja su njemu dopuštena (granice traženja centara moći); rukovodioc održava red u grupi a nema reda bez redara i redara bez ovlaštenja; uspešnost rada rukovodioca zavisi od njegovih sposobnosti da koristi manevarski prostor između krajnosti;

rukovodioc pretvara propise u akciju, reči u dela, teoriju u praksu. Svaka transformacija ima svoje gubitke i mogućnost provođenja u više varijanti; rukovodioc treba da stvara tim i da vodi ljude a ne da ih goni; onaj rukovodilac koji koristi naučna dostignuća nema većih dilema u rukovođenju, ako se ne koristi nauka dilema se rešava korištenjem rizika; posedovanje sposobnosti ne daje rezultate ukoliko nije praćeno odgovarajućim stavovima koji predstavljaju motivacionu komponentu zalaganja;

Zaključak

U radu su prikazani koji su to faktori od kojih zavisi izbor menadžera, a svakako i koje se mehanizmi mogu koristiti pri izboru i davanju adekvatnih znanja menadžmentu.

Od rukovodioca se zahtevaju znanja koja su potrebna svakom rukovodiocu (menadžeru), ali i znanja koja su specifična za vođenje i organizaciju timskog rada.

U teoriji i praksi upravljanja prisutni su brojni različiti pristupi klasifikaciji znanja koja treba da poseduje rukovodilac.Rukovodioc treba da poseduje određena tehnička, humanistička i koncepcijska znanja. Tehnička znanja su znanja koja omogućavaju obavljanje određenih poslova korištenjem određenih metoda, tehnika, postupaka i instrumenata. Obuhvataju razna inžinjerska, metodološka i uskostrukovna znanja. Koncepcijska znanja omogućavaju razumevanje timskog rada i prirode problema koji se rešava kao celine koja funkcioniše u promenljivom okruženju. Ova znanja omogućavaju da se sagleda okruženje u kojem sistem funkcioniše, da se ustanovi odnos između celine i delova i da se pojedini delovi i funkcije međusobno povežu u skladnu celinu koja će ciljno da funkcioniše. Konceptualna znanja omogućavaju sagledavanje budućnosti i daju odgovor na pitanje šta treba raditi. Humanistička znanja se odnose na poznavanje ljudi i njihove prirode, ponašanja pojedinaca, interakcija unutar grupe kao i odnosa između grupa.

U svom radu rukovodioc mora da poznaje vrste mišljenja i škole organizacije, primenjuje poznate (i da istražuje nove) principe organizacije, razne sisteme, metode i stilove rukovođenja i da ih uspešno kombinuje radi efikasnog izvršenja zadatka.

Pored znanja, veština i navika neophodnih za rukovođenje uopšte neophodno je i posedovanje znanja, veština i navika koje su potrebne za upravljanje specifičnim oblas ljudske delatnosti.

Ova znanja o znanjima, veštinama i navikama moraju biti, u potrebnom obimu i na adekvatan način formalno i sadržajno selektovani, klasifikovani i prezentovani.

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CHOOSING, CREATING AND DEVELOPING MANAGERS

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Abstract

Selection of people who will deal with management is crucial for the successful operation of any organization. This process involves respecting all relevant skills that candidates should possess, character traits, attitudes, and respect for the authority of the candidate by the group he or she should manage. The reason for conducting an adequate managerial selection procedure is the numerous findings that there are many management problems, but that there are very few sufficiently efficient managers.

The aim of this paper is to point out the characteristics that need to be identified during the selection of managers in order to achieve successful business results.

Key words: *company, managers, selection.*

Introduction

Efficiency and effectiveness of organizational systems largely depend on managers who manage them.

A good manager should know how to work with people (individuals, small and large groups), the organization of the system he manages and the technological processes in the organizational system he manages. Also, the need of practice, time requirements and modern trends require managers to possess and apply financial, legal, general economic and other aspects of management. The scope and intensity of management requirements produce that the manager must have an adequate team of people in order to be able to perform tasks, achieve results and achieve the goals set before him by the founder or owner of the company.

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By performing tasks within his workplace, the manager solves human, organizational and professional problems, with the proviso that professional and organizational problems are also problems of human nature.

A lot is required from a manager, but he is still just a man who, with his style of work and the techniques he applies in his work, should achieve maximum synergy between his knowledge and energy and the knowledge and energy of his associates.

He is required to understand the mission and strategy for achieving the mission of the organization and to successfully implement the strategy, through the execution of tasks, achieving results and achieving goals.

The job of a manager

Taylor also said that the most important factor in management skills is the relationship between the employer and the workers, in order to achieve that workers work as well as possible, as cheaply as possible, and that their working hours are used as much as possible.

The manager generates ideas, motivates employees and makes business and other decisions.

Three basic functions of management (Hortense, 2021):

- business management and administration;
- management and leadership of managers and
- management and leadership of workers and work.

Elements of the leadership function are:

- planning, in terms of future planning (conditions, behaviors, sequence of actions),
- organizing in terms of preparation,
- ordering (commanding),
- coordination and
- controlling.

In considering the work of the manager Peter Drucker (1955) insists on staff formation, communication and motivation and points out that the manager performs the following operations:

- sets goals,
- organizes,
- motivates and communicates,

- measures and evaluates the achieved results,
- develops people.

Drucker insists on "quantitative aspect of leadership", asks managers to define goals in numbers and measurable quantities, to create instruments for measuring results, measure and evaluate results together with team members (Andrejić et al., 2021).

Elements of the management function appropriate to our conditions are: planning, preparation, information and negotiation, coordination, analysis and evaluation of results (control), staff development (educational work).

Among the many roles of managers at all organizational levels, the following managerial functions are most often mentioned (Sokolov et al. 2019):

- planning, organizing and controlling,
- goal setting, planning, organizing, leading, and controlling,
- decision making, organizing, team building, planning, controlling, communicating and directing.

Regardless of the hierarchical level in the organization, managers at all levels perform similar tasks. There is a difference in the scope of certain types of work performed by managers at certain levels.

Managers of different levels of management differ (Stanković and Milenković, 2018):

- by the amount of time they spend performing certain managerial functions (planning, organizing, leading and controlling);
- by goals set at individual levels of management;
- by decisions they make (routine and non-routine decisions);
- by complexity (structure) of problems they solve, the frequency of decisions they make and the scope of engagement in initiating and implementing changes;
- Orientation in action (internal; a combination of internal and external orientation).

Successful managerial work requires mastery of certain management techniques and skills, which are acquired through formal education, education throughout life and through operational practice: interviewing, teaching, issuing orders, conducting meetings, public speaking, writing reports, speed reading, use of numerical data , problem-solving techniques, decision-making, case study methods, organizational planning, higher mathematics methods, statistics and operational research that treat the quantitative aspect of management and enable decision-making based on facts rather than subjective feeling and experience. These methods make it possible to assess the probable results of a decision.

It is required from the manager:

- to define the policy of the organization it creates;
- to create an organization from a group of people that can function and realize tasks;
- to find a way to get the most out of working members;

Behavior of the leader depends on the personality of the leader and his knowledge, upbringing, independence and responsibility, type of work and character of tasks, personality, knowledge, upbringing, independence and responsibility of the people he is managed with.

Traits of a manager and his character

L. Urwick in his work entitled "16 questions about training and selection of managers" believes that the leader should be characterized by courage, willpower, resilience in dealing with people and knowledge, which is: determination and courage, extraordinary energy and willpower, resilience, a sense of proportion and tact, expertise and broad perspectives, loyalty to the working group, the narrower and wider organization, honesty, perseverance of character and deep faith in people (Austin & Williams, 2021).

Table 1. Properties of the ideal leader (for the needs of the economy) ranked according to the order as defined by the leaders of various countries (Cambrea et al., 2021).

	USA	Belgium	North France	East France
Neural and physical energy	1	8	9	9
Consistency, audacity	2	5	1	1
Delight	3	3	5	5
Understanding people	4	6	4	4
Integrity	5	2	2	5
Mastery in techniques	6	10	8	7
Strength of character	7	7	7	8
Intelligence	8	4	5	2
Pedagogical sense	9	9	10	10
Instilling confidence	10	1	3	3

In the search for such a way of behavior that would stimulate performance, the psychology of leadership has been developed, which includes: the choice of a leader and the development of his charismatic qualities.

Analyzing a large number of successful managers, it was found that managers should, among others, have the following characteristics (Nadoveza & Pešić, 2020):

- Knowledge of people based on experience, which includes understanding their complexity and integrity and intuitive talent to feel which job can be used most successfully in group jobs. The starting points for knowing people are the ability to live and the power of presentation that is focused on practical issues.
- Suggestiveness, i.e. the ability to transfer personal will to others and to encourage others to take action. The initial prerequisites for this ability are inner security, personal conviction in the goal, self-discipline and strong will.

These skills are developed in managers through training for managers.

From the above, it can be concluded that it is necessary to select people who are elected managers and systematically educate them with maximum respect for the characteristics of the selection of chosen candidates.

After World War II, under leadership of Hans Blash, the 'Institute for Applied Psychology – IAP' educated executives, where they insisted on improving and stimulating the personality of the leader (Wang et al., 2019).

According to Blash, in order to achieve the psychological goal of courses for managers, during the structuring of the course and the course itself, the main features of the manager and important additional features of the manager must be taken didactically and in another way and treated differently.

Main characteristics of a manager are (Avakumović et al., 2021):

- initiative, diligence, self-initiative,
- natural self-confidence without overemphasizing one's own importance,
- awareness of responsibility,
- propensity for entrepreneurship and risk appetite for the “good thing”,
- ability to perceive personal mistakes and correct them,
- real authority instead of autocratic behavior,
- solidarity and connection in business,

- personal integrity of the person at work and outside it,
- personal maturity.

Important additional qualities of a manager are: knowledge of his profession and branch, training of opinions, strength of mind, criticism, review of methods of gaining insight and mastering them, work discipline, consistency, accuracy and reliability.

After the first Swiss course in business management, held in 1954, a new period in management called "goal setting" (Gorges & Holz-Rau, 2021).

Under the influence of American theory, the motto “cycle of leadership” is followed, which is orientation, decision-making, realization (Lukichev & Romanovich, 2016).

Assumptions about goals become more noticeable and easier to control.

Every leadership presupposes the existence of some goal. Achieving that goal requires as complete an assumption as possible about its type and character. Setting a goal must be done with continuous consideration of available resources and opportunities, environmental impacts, and assessment of development opportunities (Spanellis et al., 2021).

Determining (setting) goals, in order for their realization to succeed, requires the existence of an elaborated concept.

It takes place in several phases (Damnjanović et al., 2020):

- The phase of forming an opinion in which the assessment of the position and the assessment of development tendencies is performed;
- The phase of forming the will (aspiration) in which the choice is made from the previously discussed possibilities and a decision is made;
- **The phase of achieving the goal (realization)** through the formulation of tasks, monitoring the achievement of tasks and evaluation of the achieved results.”

Desirable qualities of a manager

Every profession, even the profession of leadership, requires specific talent and specific character traits. In addition to general human qualities (intelligence, energy, creativity, will and strong character), the manager should be adorned with special qualities related to the ability to properly select and develop staff and know people and their problems, properly assess their strengths and weaknesses and use their abilities.

Different authors state different classifications of traits and different traits that are desirable for a manager in their research (Simić, 2020).

Managers are required to, in addition to efficient and effective implementation of managerial tasks, have leadership inclinations, i.e. to enjoy great personal authority and power and to be able to successfully perform all management functions and processes (planning, organizing, personnel, leadership, control, coordination, assignment of tasks).

In addition to the above, the manager is required to be able to quickly notice problems, see broadly and deeply, and at the same time quickly diagnose and separate the important from the irrelevant and to move efficiently through the organizational system.

Important personality traits that should be taken into account when choosing a manager are: temperament, interests, character and abilities, and they can be determined to some extent on the basis of certain qualitative and quantitative indicators. Also, one should take into account the knowledge possessed by the manager, his previous thinking and work engagement in all phases of the system life cycle (stable states of the system, crisis situations and states, ...), behavior and public (social) action (Mihajlović et al., 2018).

In order for the choice to be adequate, it is very important that the leader has certain qualities: developed intellect, broad general culture, good professional and ideological-political preparation, good coordination of character and temperament, skill of careful attitude to requests and complaints of associates, ability to lead an organization (group) and learn from her.

The personal quality of the leader greatly and directly affects the motivation and satisfaction of the people in the group and the character of the relationship among the members of the group.

Today, research is focused in two directions:

1) Exploring personal characteristics, social background as well as whole personalities in the search for how to create a good leader and

2) Analysis of the work of managers (based on what managers do and what they should do).

The personality of the manager is a complex of different qualities that include:

- moral qualities: highly developed social consciousness and social feeling; sense of economy; determination; entrepreneurship; sense of responsibility;
- intellectual abilities: methodical thinking and work; objectivity; realism and practical meaning; ability to persuade;
- physical characteristics: physical and mental health; vitality; endurance; nice look;
- knowledge and experience: general education and vocational education and work in managerial positions, ie schools for managers, past work in education and upbringing of managers or similar.

Different authors cite different classifications of traits in their research and different traits that are desirable for a manager.

When considering the characteristics of a manager, one should notice some innate immanent personality traits and traits that are acquired through upbringing and education.

Since the manager is also the workforce, it is necessary to know certain desirable characteristics of the workforce in general.

Also, all the qualities of a manager can be classified to (Halabi et al., 2019):

- General - which are desirable for every manager, regardless of the status position in the organization and the type of work that the organization he manages is engaged in and
- Special - which are conditioned by the specifics of the work that the organization is engaged in.
- The status position of the manager determines the allowed deviations of the desired values of certain general characteristics - the characteristics of the manager.

Each personality is a totality of inclinations, emotions and motives from which certain personality attributes develop under certain conditions (Chernobai et al., 2021):

- abilities develop out of inclinations,
- temperament develops from emotionality,
- ambitions develop from motives.

This means that the manager, as a workforce, is required to want, can, knows and knows how to work with great zeal.

In order to obtain the desirable characteristics of an active leader, it is necessary to cultivate innate human immanent characteristics and adequate education and upbringing.

There are different types of classifications of desirable labor traits. Fajol insisted on health, intelligence, morals, general education, vocational education and experience.

There is a classification of desirable labor force characteristics into:

- personal characteristics (health, intelligence, values, skills - dexterity, entrepreneurship, discipline);
- work characteristics of the workforce (attitude towards work, professional education, experience);
- characteristics of the civility of the workforce (general education, attitude towards the collective, attitude towards man, attitude towards society)

The classification of desirable personality traits of a manager (request) can be performed, according to the types of work performed by the manager, on (Davila et al., 2009; Pavlićević and Radenović, 2020):

- traits desirable for decision making (intelligence, analytical spirit, predictability, determination, optimism, acceptance of responsibility, consistency, self-criticism);
- for delegation (ability to assess people, ability to plan, ability to notice the functioning of the organization, positional authority);
- for communication (general culture, communicativeness, expression skills, personal authority, civilization);
- for coordination (ability to notice the functioning of the whole, connection of parts within the whole, subunit as a whole and connection of the whole with the higher whole; ability to notice movements and tendencies, experience in working with people, integrative abilities, professional experience);
- for control (knowledge of the nature and requirements of control, technological discipline, sense of order, sense of proportion and knowledge of the criteria for tolerances);

- for staff development (work habits, expediency, professional authority, modesty, moderation, mental balance, ability to teach, selflessness, socio-political education);
- for stimulation (initiative, industrial psychology, collaboration);
- to intervene (objectivity in choosing coercion, setting responsibilities, making demands and seeking consideration)

Reporting the need for these requirements is variable over time and varies from case to case. Since all the above requirements cannot be met by any manager, each manager is required to be constantly informed, analyze the situation, make decisions, watch trends and continuously train.

From most analyzes, the following traits can be derived that are desirable to be represented in management (Spenceley, Snyman & Eagles, 2021):

- to be more oriented towards society and the group and less towards himself and personal preoccupations, to be dynamic and mobile;
- that there is a wide interest, constant and coordinated interests;
- to strive for collectivism and humanity, openness, courtesy and modesty;
- to be aware of the importance of their work and its contribution to the work of the group;
- to accept the duty of a manager, to perform it voluntarily and to be emotionally attached to it;
- systematic, persistent in overcoming difficulties, initiative to find new ways of solving tasks;
- loyalty to the team (working group), wider and narrower organization;
- observational abilities, flexible thinking, ability to present, compare, conclude and generalize;
- should be brave, ready to face danger and discomfort and accept responsibility for the decision made and the action taken;
- intellectual abilities, ability to remember and observe;
- ability to gather people around and build a team (ability to work in a team);
- ability to quickly establish good relationships with other people;
- ability to communicate well with people;
- ability to impose their proposals and solutions on others;
- ability to understand the way complex projects are implemented;
- ability to assess personalities through establishing the dominant configuration of their needs;
- high degree of frustrating tolerance and emotional stability; • high degree of elasticity and adaptability;
- willingness to take responsibility and risk;

- high level of aspiration;
- extensive experience in solving similar problems;
- the power to persuade people to cooperate voluntarily;
- favorable biophysiological characteristics (health, working condition, age, anthropological features, ..);
- to possess certain charismatic qualities:
    - ability to assess which jobs can be used most successfully within the group, based on empathy and presentation of the situation;
    - suggestibility, i.e. the ability to persuade and negotiate, to transfer personal will to others and to encourage others to voluntary cooperation and activity, based on internal security, personal belief in the goal, self-discipline and strong will;
    - to be optimistic by nature.

The manager is required to be both a leader and a manager, i.e. to enjoy great personal authority and power and to be able to successfully perform all functions and processes of management (planning, organizing, personnel, leading, controlling, coordinating, assigning tasks).

In addition to the above, the manager is required to be able to quickly notice problems, see broadly and deeply, and at the same time quickly, quickly diagnose and separate the important from the irrelevant and to move through the system efficiently.

Desirable attitudes of managers

Desirable attitudes that should be possessed (i.e. adopted as one's own) by the manager (in relation to himself, other individuals, the project group and the work performed by the project group) can be classified differently, depending on the object of attitude and adopted classification criteria.

Some general attitudes that must be an integral part of the personality of the leader and which are a necessary starting point for successful work are the following: man is the ultimate measure of all values; the behavior of the manager is crucial to the attitude towards work and behavior of other important people for the project, during all phases in the "project life cycle"; quality choice, education and development are very important for the success of the project; a team that realizes a complex task - the project is not only an economic or military but also a social unit; others should be heard whenever possible; respect and appreciation of interlocutors; people should be trusted and their responsibilities, but also checked because people follow the line of least resistance, they are prone to relaxation and mistakes; the leader must not be vain and should not take revenge on people; the manager should show others by personal example how it is done (“show - then ask” or “show and ask”, whenever possible and justified); the leader must not put himself too much in the foreground, but should lead and build the team and enable others to come to the fore and express their values; the manager should perform tasks through other people and expose himself only when he really has to; for significant decisions that are harmonized with verbal communications, it is necessary to request their confirmation in writing (secret declaration); an individual involved in a complex undertaking carried out by a group of people or an organization must know the relationship of his task to the whole or at least to a higher level of aggregation; the quality of each product and the productivity of the manufacturer of that product depend on the management structures; the manager should decide on everything that is not prescribed and on the allowed deviations from what is prescribed, but within the limits of deviations that are allowed to him (limits of searching for centers of power); the leader maintains order in the group and there is no order without a caretaker or a caretaker without authorization; the success of the manager's work depends on his ability to use the room for maneuver between extremes; the manager turns regulations into action, words into deeds, theory into practice. Each transformation has its losses and the possibility of implementation in several variants; the leader should create a team and lead people and not chase them; the manager who uses scientific achievements has no major dilemmas in management, if science is not used, the dilemma is solved by using risk; possession of abilities does not give results if it is not accompanied by appropriate attitudes that are a motivational component of commitment;

Conclusion

The paper presents the factors on which the choice of manager depends, and certainly which mechanisms can be used in the selection and provision of adequate knowledge to management.

The manager is required to have the knowledge that every manager needs, but also the knowledge that is specific to leading and organizing teamwork.

In the theory and practice of management, there are many different approaches to the classification of knowledge that should be possessed by the manager. The manager should possess certain technical, humanistic and conceptual knowledge. Technical knowledge is knowledge that enables the performance of certain tasks using certain methods, techniques, procedures and instruments. They include various engineering, methodological and narrow professional knowledge. Conceptual knowledge enables an understanding of teamwork and the nature of the problem to be solved as a whole that operates in a changing environment. This knowledge enables us to understand the environment in which the system operates, to establish the relationship between the whole and the parts, and to connect the individual parts and functions into a harmonious whole that will function purposefully. Conceptual knowledge enables foresight and provides an answer to the question of what needs to be done. Humanistic knowledge refers to the knowledge of people and their nature, the behavior of individuals, interactions within a group as well as relationships between groups.

In his work, the manager must know the types of opinions and schools of the organization, apply known (and explore new) principles of organization, various systems, methods and styles of leadership and successfully combine them to effectively perform the task.

In addition to the knowledge, skills and habits necessary for management in general, it is also necessary to have the knowledge, skills and habits needed to manage specific areas of human activity.

This knowledge about knowledge, skills and habits must be, to the necessary extent and in an adequate way, formally and content-wise selected, classified and presented.

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ISTRAŽIVANJE PROFESIONALNOG STATUSA MENADŽERA SA ASPEKTA SOCIO-DEMOGRAFSKIH OBELEŽJA

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Apstrakt

U savremenim uslovima poslovanja, rast i razvoj organizacija zavisi od sposobnosti njenih menadžera da na adekvatan način koordiniraju aktivnostima zaposlenih. Od menadžera se zahteva da sistematski i permanentno usavršavaju i razvijaju sopstvena znanja, sposobnosti i veštine u skladu sa dinamičnim promenama globalnog organizacionog okruženja. Sve se to reflektuje i na njihov status u organizaciji. Cilj ovog rada je istraživanje međusobne zavisnosti i povezanosti socio-demografskih obeležja menadžera i profesionalnog statusa. Prikupljanje podataka izvršeno je anonimnim anketom na uzorku od 110 menadžera različitih hijerarhijskih nivoa. U analizi podataka korišćena je deskriptivna statistika i faktorska analiza. Dobijeni rezultati pokazali su da praktično iskustvo i porodična situacija predstavljaju dominantne socio-demografske faktore. Samo oni zaposleni koji uspostave balans između profesionalnog i porodičnog života, mogu da se u potpunosti posvete poslu koji obavljaju i na taj način doprinesu unapređenju poslovanja.

Ključne reči: *menadžeri, profesionalni status, socio-demografski obeležja, organizacioni ciljevi.*

JEL: *J24, M12.*

Uvod

U savremenom poslovnom okruženju zaposleni čini najvredniji resurs organizacija. Svakog zaposlenog čine njegova znanja, sposobnosti i mogućnosti koje menadžeri treba da prepoznaju i da ih shodno tome rasporede na ona radna mesta gde će moći da najviše doprinesu u ostvarivanju postavljenih poslovnih ciljeva, što podrazumeva i odgovarajuću motivacionu klimu. Prvi korak

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menadžera u stvaranju motivacione klime jeste da zaposlene sagleda kao specifičnu ličnost koja ima svoje potrebe, esencijalne vrednosti i očekivanja, što dovodi do jačanja njihovog samopouzdanja i veće motivisanosti. Motivisani zaposleni su energični, puni entuzijazma, uvek su uspešni u obavljanju svoga posla i, shodno tome, teže da dobiju šire nadležnosti. Oni se ne plaše promena, pozitivno pristupaju svakom izazovu, to prenose na ostale u organizaciji, što se pozitivno reflektuje na ukupne poslovne performanse. Na menadžerima je da odaberu ljude prema potrebnim veštinama, da imaju jasno određene ciljeve i da na adekvatan način nagrađuju ostvarene rezultate. Pri tome treba imati u vidu da sistem nagrađivanja ne čini samo novac koji najčešće daje kratkoročne rezultate, već i pokazivanje aktivnog zanimanja za karijeru svakog zaposlenog, pozitivne povratne informacije o njegovim rezultatima i proširenje nadležnosti kao priznanje sposobnosti.

Ovaj rad ima cilj da ukaže na to koje socio-demografske karakteristike menadžera utiču na njegov profesionalni status i kako se one grupišu u manji broj faktora. Polazna hipoteza istraživanja je da na motivaciju menadžera da se iskažu na profesionalnom nivou značajno utiču praktično iskustvo i porodična situacija.

Šta čini uspešnog menadžera

Osnovni cilj savremenog menadžera jeste da deluje efektivnije i efikasnije što doprinosi boljim organizacionim performansama. Često se ističe da „znanje o tome kako raditi s drugima i uz pomoć drugih predstavlja najvažniji kapital svakog menadžera" (Heller, 2002). Posao menadžera nije usmeren samo na ličnu promociju, već i na pomaganje drugima da svoje poslove obave na što bolji način. U tu svrhu neophodno je sagledati njihove funkcije, uloge, veštine i osobine.

U odnosu na obavljanje određenih poslova i zadataka dok efikasno koordiniraju radom drugih, menadžeri obavljaju četiri funkcije: „planiranje, organizovanje, vođenje i kontrolu" (Lekić, 2019: 41). U planiranju na osnovu istraživanja tržišta postavljaju misiju, viziju, ciljeve i strategiju. Organizovanje se odnosi na konkretizovanje ciljeva u specifične poslove i zadatke, i njihovu raspodelu na zaposlene. Vođenje je menadžerska funkcija koja obuhvata motivisanje, koordinaciju i komunikaciju zaposlenih u cilju njihovog podsticanja da daju maksimum od sebe u ostvarivanju organizacionih ciljeva. Kontrola je proces poređenja između ostvarenih rezultata sa prethodno postavljenim ciljevima, kako bi se u slučaju uočenih odstupanja preduzele odgovarajuće korektivne aktivnosti radi njihove eliminacije.

Minzberg je u svojim studijama zaključio da menadžeri u svom poslovanju ispoljavaju deset uloga, odnosno specifičnih načina ponašanja, koje je diferencirao u: „1) interpersonalne (glava kuće, lider, funkcija veze) – obuhvataju poslove i zadatke ceremonijalnog karaktera, 2) informativne (monitor, portparol, interni davalac informacija) – uključuju interno i eksterno primanje, sakupljanje i širenje informacija i 3) donošenje odluka (preduzetnik, alokacija resursa, pregovarač, rešavanje problema) odnose se na pravilan izbor u različitim poslovnim situacijama“ (Mintzberg, 1973).

Da bi izvršili svoje dužnosti i aktivnosti koje su povezane sa funkcijom koju obavljaju, menadžerima su potrebne tehničke, ljudske i konceptualne veštine (Katz, 1974). Tehničke veštine su bitne su za linijske menadžere, ljudske za sve nivoe menadžera, a konceptualne za top menadžere.

Osobine su „predispozicije koje predstavljaju crte određene ličnosti koja ih poseduje ili ne poseduje i koje joj omogućavaju da se na određeni način ponaša u datim situacijama, kao i da uspešno obavlja određene aktivnosti“ (Lekić, 2019: 46). Osobine efikasnog menadžera odnose se na to da je „vredan, inteligentan, pošten, ambiciozan, energičan, entuzijasta, fleksibilan, maštovit, optimista, hrabar, jaka i stabilna ličnost“ (Jovanović, 1997: 21–22). Teško je naći idealnu osobu koja poseduje sve navedene osobine. Po mišljenju Adižesa (1989: 88) „Idealni menadžer je proizvođač rezultata, izvrstan upravitelj, preduzetnik i integrator svih funkcija unutar kompanije. Svoj rad procenjuje prema tome koliko dobro funkcioniše grupa kojom upravlja, prema njihovim individualnim i grupnim rezultatima i u kojoj meri su realizovani postavljeni ciljevi i zadaci.“

Efikasnost menadžera ispoljava se na više načina. Prvo kao „menadžerski ili grupni učinak – menadžer je efikasan ako su i zaposleni kojima on upravlja efikasni“ (Elenkov, 2002; Riggio et al., 2003), potom kao „percipirana efektivnost menadžera/lidera – zaposleni smatraju da je menadžer/lider efikasan“ (Foti, Hauenstein, 2007; Anderson et al., 2008), zatim kao „samoefiksanost liderstva – menadžer procenjuje sebe kao efikasnog menadžera/lidera“ (Ng et al., 2008) i na kraju kao manifestovanje liderstva – menadžer daje dobar primer ponašanja i može da ubedi druge zaposlene da je kompetentan lider.

Na osnovu svega izloženog, uočava se da uspešnost menadžera zavisi od njegovog načina rada sa drugom zaposlenima. To znači da su za efikasano upravljanje ljudima menadžerima potrebne i upravljačke i liderske sposobnosti. Upravljanje se zasniva na „ostvarivanju organizacionih ciljeva na efektivan i efikasan način, kroz planiranje, organizovanje, vođenje i kontrolu organizacionih resursa“ (Daft, 2016: 4). Osnovne crte liderstva su lično ponašanje i stil. Lider deluje na emocije kako bi zaposlene pokrenuo vizijom i inspirisao da tu viziju ostvare, što je karakteristično u vreme velikih promena. Emocije „podstiču, energizuju i usmeravaju ponašanje“ (Trebješanin, 2008: 283). Upravljanje i liderstvo mogu se posmatrati kao dve uloge koje su deo istog konstrukta: na jednom kraju racionalnim upravljanjem nadziru se sistemi i rad, dok se na drugom putem stila i ponašanja liderstvo obraća emocijama.

Stilovi upravljanja ljudskim resursima

Menadžeri imaju značajnu ulogu u podsticanju ljudskih resursa na određeno ponašanje koje treba da rezultira ostvarivanjem organizacionih ciljevi. Ljudski kapital obuhvata „kompetencije, sposobnosti i vrednosti zaposlenih“ (Bose, 2004), a na koji način će se one usmeriti zavisi od stila upravljanja (rukovođenja). Stil vođstva predstavlja „način na koji se uspostavljaju odnosi između menadžera i saradnika, kao i ostalih zaposlenih u kompaniji, odnosno način na koji menadžer usmerava ponašanje podređenih i sredstava koja koristi da ih pridobije ili privoli na željeno ponašanje“ (Janićijević et al., 2020: 417). Različiti stilovi rukovođenja direktno ili indirektno utiču na poslovne performanse zaposlenih.

U ovom radu akcenat je na klasifikaciji stilova liderstva (rukovođenja) u odnosu na autoritet i na nove pristupe liderstvu. Najčešća podela je u odnosu na stepen korišćenja autoriteta, po kojoj se razlikuju „autokratski, demokratski i liberalni stil“ (Janićijević et al., 2020). Savremeni uslovi poslovanja nametnuli su potrebu za novim stilovima liderstva, kao što su: transakciono, transformaciono, harizmatično, vizionarsko, timsko i strategijsko liderstvo.

Autokratski lideri određuju zadatke svim zaposlenim i kontrolišu njihovo izvršavanje primenjujući sistem kažnjavanja i nagrađivanja. Oni nisu voljni da dele informacije sa svojim podređenima i usvajaju vertikalnu komunikaciju odozgo na dole ne dozvoljavajući zaposlenima samostalnost u izvršavanju postavljenih zadataka (Farh, Cheng, 2000). Na taj način stvara se distanca i nepoverenje između podređenih i vođa, što dovodi do neefiksanosti zaposlenih (Cheng, Wang, 2015). Jednom rečju, ovakav stil liderstva najčešće izaziva devijantno ponašanje zaposlenih, što se negativno odražava na poslovne rezultate (Wang et al., 2005).

Demokratski lider je okrenut ka ljudima i podstiče učešće svojih saradnika u rešavanju problema i donošenju odluka. Ovaj stil se često naziva participativnim stilom jer podstiče zaposlene da aktivno učestvuju u donošenju odluka vezanih za rešavanje uočenih organizacionih problema. Demokratski lider razume probleme svojih zaposlenih, i zajedno sa njima radi na njihovoj identifikaciji i donošenju odluka za njihovo prevazilaženje (Sharma, Singh, 2013).

Liberalni stil je stil vođenja gde zaposleni imaju visok stepen slobode u odlučivanju o vlastitom ponašanju i radu. Ovi lideri dopuštaju podređenima visok stepen samostalnosti i utvrđivanju sopstvenih ciljeva i određivanju sredstva za njihovu realizaciju, pri čemu im pribavljaju potrebne informacije i povezuju sa eksternim okruženjem. Istraživanja su pokazala da su rezultati efikasniji kada ponašanje vođe odgovara očekivanjima sledbenika (Epitropaki, Martin, 2005), dok u slučaju razvijanja percepcije neefiksanosti kod podređenih lider možda neće moći da ih motiviše da rade u skladu sa zahtevima tržišta (Eagly et al., 2003).

Za dinamičnu ekonomiju i sticanje konkurentske prednosti krucijalno je deljenje znanja u kompaniji (Foss, Pederson, 2002). Istraživanja su pokazala da transakcioni stil rukovođenja značajno utiče na izbor, motivaciju i sposobnost deljenja znanja (Lu et al., 2006), kao i na povećanje zadovoljstva poslom i organizacionu posvećenost (Epitropaki, Martin, 2005). Veće zadovoljstvo poslom utiče i na veće zadovoljstvo životom (Unanue et al., 2017). Transakcioni lider usmerava ili motiviše svoje sledbenike tako što im objašnjava zadatke i potrebe posla. To je „liderstvo koje nastoji da održi stabilnost, kroz regularnu ekonomsku i socijalnu razmenu, kako bi se ostvarili specifični ciljevi, kako za lidere, tako i za sledbenike“ (Lussier, Achua, 2001: 383). Ovaj stil rukovođenja fokusira se na stvaranje podsticajnog okruženja za kreativnost zaposlenih kroz podršku (priznanja i nagrade) lidera (Oldham, Cummings, 1996) i njihovu konzistentnost sa zaposlenima (Amabile et al., 2004).

Transformacioni lideri su „sposobni da motivišu zaposlene da rade iznad svojih očekivanja i mogućnosti inspirišući ih vizijom i misijom u koju svi veruju“ (Bass, 1990). Oni pomažu svojim sledbenicima da se osećaju kao ključni faktor kompanije i pomažu im da shvate kako se njihovi poslovi uklapaju u viziju kompanije. Transformaciono liderstvo pozitivno utiče na performanse zaposlenih (Vincent-Höper et al., 2012; Lai et al., 2020), na njihovu samoefikasnost, motivaciju i kreativnost (Kim, Yoon, 2015; Bastari et al. 2021).

Harizmatični lideri su „lideri koji snagom svojih ličnih sposobnosti imaju specifičan i izuzetan uticaj na svoje sledbenike“ (House, 1977). To su lideri koji „definišu jasnu viziju budućnosti zasnovanu na čvrsto prihvaćenim vrednostima; potenciraju te vrednosti ponašanjem koje je u skladu sa vizijom; transformišu sledbenicima velika očekivanja u odnosu na performanse i veruju u sposobnost sledbenike da tu viziju ostvare“ (Wildman, Yammarono, 1999). U ovom stilu bitan je način prenošenja poruka lidera, što posebno dolazi do izražaja u njegovoj neverbalnoj komunikaciji sa sledbenicima (Sacavém et al., 2017).

Vizionarski stil liderstva odnosi se na „sposobnost lidera da kreira pozitivnu sliku budućnosti koja motiviše zaposlene u kompaniji i pruža im smernice za buduće planiranje i postavljanje ciljeva“ (Thomas, Greenberger,1995). Nakon određivanja vizije, lideri ovog stila pokazuju tri sposobnosti povezane sa efektivnošću njihovih vizionarskih uloga: „1) sposobnost da viziju objasne drugima, 2) sposobnost da viziju iskažu, kako verbalno, tako i na osnovu ponašanja kojim se vizija permanentno prenosi i pojačava i 3) sposobnost da viziju prošire ili primene u različitim oblastima liderstva“ (Robbins, Coulter, 2005: 434).

Izazov za menadžere jeste kako da postanu efektivni timski lideri što se odnosi na njihovu sposobnost da znaju kada treba ostaviti tim da sam radi, a kada se treba umešati. Efikasan tim je u stanju da deli i koristi talente i stručnost svojih članova kako bi nadomestio pojedinačne nedostatke, a integrišu ga četiri osnovna procesa: kognitivni, motivacioni, afektivni i koordinacioni (Zaccaro et al., 2001).

Strategijsko liderstvo podrazumeva sve one aktivnosti „koje utiču na ponašanje zaposlenih u njihovom naporu da formulišu i primene planirane strategije koje će kompaniji omogućiti realizaciju postavljenih poslovnih ciljeva“ (Inyang, 2010: 231). Danas kada se promene dešavaju u svakom segmentu poslovanja sve više se nameće potreba za strategijskim liderstvom, koje se odnosi na „sposobnost pojedinca da spozna, predupredi, bude fleksibilan, razmišlja na duge staze i radi sa drugima na pokretanju promena kako bi kreirao održivu budućnost za organizaciju“ (Ireland, Hitt, 1999: 63).

Brojne studije za predmet su imale istraživanje uticaja upravljačkog i liderskog stila menadžera. Ponašanje lidera određuju njihove socio-biografske karakteristike. Pojedini autori ističu da se često zanemaruje rodna pripadnost (Hoobler et. al., 2016). Identitet rodne uloge definiše „stereotipnu individualnu samopercepciju kao mušku ili ženstvenu i obuhvata one kvalitete koji se smatraju idealnim za svaki pol u društvu“ (Wood, Eagly, 2009). Od muškaraca se očekuje da ispolje asertivnost, težnju za visokim rezultatima i kompetitivnost, a od žena empatiju, dobronamernost i ličnu brigu za sve druge u kompaniji (Diekman, Eagly, 2000). Godine starosti utiču na sposobnost menadžera i na njihove poslovne performanse (Doucouré, Diagne, 2020), a kvalitet tima na ukupno zadovoljstvo zaposlenih (Lekić et al., 2020a). Wang & Chang (2005) ukazuju da radno iskustvo direktno utiče na lojalnost zaposlenih, a istraživanje Steenkamp & Kashyapa (2010) da lojalnost zaposlenih nema direktan uticaj na finansijske performanse, već indirektan preko relacionog kapitala. Sa ljudskim i relacionim kapitalom direktno je povezan strukturni kapital (Lekić et al., 2020b) koji „pomaže zaposlenima u procesu stvaranja vrednost“ (Subramanian, Youndt, 2005).

Metodologija istraživanja

Predmetno istraživanje je sprovedeno u privatnim i javnim preduzećima, u periodu od februara do kraja aprila 2021. godine na području Grada Beograda. Podaci su prikupljeni anonimnim upitnikom na uzorku od 110 menadžera različitih hijerarhijskih nivoa i sektora. Socio-demografska struktura menadžera sagledana je kroz rodnu pripadnost (pol), starosnu i kvalifikacionu strukturu, bračni status, broj dece, radno iskustvo u rukovođenju, vremenski period rada na trenutnoj poziciji, hijerarhijski nivo (top menadžeri, srednji nivo menadžera i linijski menadžeri), prirodu odgovornosti koju imaju (generalni i funkcionalni menadžeri) i dužinu radnog staža. U analizi podataka socio-demografskih karakteristika menadžera korišćena je deskriptivna statistika i faktorska analiza.

Rezultati istraživanja i diskusija

Dobijeni rezultati pokazuju da je u ukupnog istraživačkom uzorku (N=110) iz privatnih preduzeća učestvovalo 67 ispitanika (60,91%), dok je iz grupe javnih preduzeća uključeno 43 ispitanika (39,09%). Prosečna dužina njihovog radnog staža iznosi 12,38 godina.

Tabela 1. Struktura uzorka prema polu, starosnoj i kvalifikacionoj strukturi

Pol, starosna i kvalifikaciona struktura		Frekvenca	%
Pol ispitanika	Muški pol	72	65,45
	Ženski pol	38	34,55
	Ukupno	110	100,00
Starosna struktura	Manje od 30 godina	20	18,18
	Između 30 i 40 godina	55	50,00
	Između 41 i 50 godina	26	23,64
	Preko 30 godina	9	8,18
	Ukupno	110	100,00
Kvalifikaciona struktura	Srednja stručna sprema	7	6,36
	Viša stručna sprema	20	18,18
	Visoka stručna sprema	52	47,27
	Naučno zvanje (master, magistar, doktor nauka)	31	28,18
	Ukupno	110	100,00

Izvor: Istraživanje autora

Iz *Tabele 1.* da je 65,45% ispitanika muškog i 34,55% ispitanika ženskog pola. Prema godinama starosti ispitanici su podeljeni u četiri grupe: 18,18 zaposlenih mlađih od 30 godina, 50,00% zaposlenih između 30 i 40 godina starosti, 23,64% između 41 i 50 godine starosti i samo 8,18% ispitanika koji imaju više od 50 godina života. Od ukupnog broja ispitanika, 47,27% ima visoku stručnu spremu (fakultet), zatim 28,18% naučno zvanje (master, magistar, doktor nauka), 18,18% višu stručnu spremu, a samo 6,36% srednju stručnu spremu.

Tabela 2. Struktura uzorka prema bračnom statusu i broju dece

Bračni status i broj dece		**Frekvenca**	**%**
Brači status	Bračna/vanbračna zajednica	67	60,91
	Razveden/razvedena	21	19,09
	Udovac/udovica	3	2,73
	Neoženjen/neudata	19	17,27
	Ukupno	110	100,00
Broj dece	Bez dece	23	20,91
	Jedno dete	29	26,36
	Dvoje dece	46	41,82
	Troje dece	10	9,09
	Više od troje	2	1,82
	Ukupno	110	100,00

Izvor: Istraživanje autora

Na osnovu podataka prikazanih u *Tabeli 2.* uočava da od ukupnog broja anketiranih menadžera 60,91% živi u bračnoj/vanbračnoj zajednici, dok je 19,09% razvedno. Pri tome, 79,00% ispitanika ispunilo se ulozi roditelja.

Tabela 3. Struktura ispitanika prema radnom iskustvu u rukovođenju

Radno iskustvo u rukovođenju	**Frekvenca**	**%**
Manje od 5 godina	27	24,55
Od 5 – 10 godina	50	45,45
Od 10 do 20 godina	26	23,64
Preko 20 godina	7	6,36
Ukupno	110	100,00

Izvor: Istraživanje autora

U odnosu na radno iskustvo u rukovođenju *(Tabela 3*), uzorak istraživanja je heterogen. Kreće se u rasponu manje od 5 godina do preko 20 godina, što im pruža mogućnost na blagovremeno reaguju na uočene probleme.

Tabela 4. Struktura ispitanika prema vremenskom periodu na trenutnoj instanci

Vremenski period rada na trenutnoj instanci	**Frekvenca**	**%**
< 6 meseci	10	9,09
Od 6 do 12 meseci	15	13,64
Od 1 do 5 godina	53	48,18
Od 5 do 10 godina	26	23,64
> 10 godina	6	5,45
Ukupno	110	100,00

Izvor: Istraživanje autora

Struktura ispitanika prema vremenskom periodu na trenutnoj instanci interesantna je sa aspekta procene fleksibilnosti menadžera specifičnostima posla koje obavlja na toj instanci. Dobijeni rezultati u odnosu na ovaj pokazatelj prikazani su u *Tabeli 4*.

Tabela 5. Struktura ispitanika prema hijerarhijskom i funkcionalnom nivou

Hijerarhijski nivo menadžera	Funkcionalni menadžeri		Generalni menadžeri		Ukupno	
	Frekvenca	%	Frekvenca	%	Frekvenca	%
Linijski menadžeri	67	72,83	3	16,67	70	63,64
Srednji nivo menadžera	25	27,17	10	55,56	35	31,82
Top menadžeri	0	0,00	5	27,78	5	4,55
Ukupno	92	83,64	18	16,36	110	100,00

Izvor: Istraživanje autora

U Tabeli 5. prikazana je distribucija ispitanih menadžera po vertikalnoj i horizontalnoj strukturi. U odnosu na hijerarhijsku poziciju 70 ispitanika (63,64%) čine linijski menadžeri, 31,82% srednji nivo menadžera, a 4,55% top menadžeri. Sa aspekta nivoa odgovornosti koji 83,64% pripada funkcionalnim, a 16,36% generalnim menadžerima.

Na osnovu prikazane analize, može se zaključiti da je uzorak heterogen, što pruža zadovoljavajuću osnovu za proveru postavljene hipoteze istraživanja.

Faktorska analiza socio-demografskih karakteristika menadžera izvršena je rotacijom faktora primenom varimax metode.

Tabela 6. Faktorska analiza primenom varimax rotacija faktora

Attribute	Communality Estimates		Axis_1		Axis_2	
-	Prior	Final	Corr.	Sq. (Cumul.)	Corr.	Sq. (Cumul.)
Deca	0,70100	0,78888	0,88809	0,79 (0,79)	0,01301	0,00 (0,79)
Broj dece	0,62947	0,68123	-0,79950	0,64 (0,64)	-0,20499	0,04 (0,68)
Bračni status	0,50141	0,52187	0,72014	0,52 (0,52)	-0,05718	0,00 (0,52)
Hijerarhijski nivo	0,13915	0,20002	-0,06256	0,00 (0,00)	0,44284	0,20 (0,20)
Kvalifikaciona struktura	0,09446	0,11354	0,00229	0,00 (0,00)	0,33696	0,11 (0,11)
Starosna struktura	0,10936	0,07894	-0,07572	0,01 (0,01)	0,27057	0,07 (0,08)
Drutvo	0,05870	0,04380	0,13365	0,02 (0,02)	-0,16104	0,03 (0,04)
Priroda odgovornosti	0,12101	0,02786	-0,05898	0,00 (0,00)	-0,15616	0,02 (0,03)
Pol	0,04931	0,01019	-0,00824	0,00 (0,00)	0,10059	0,01 (0,01)
Dužina rada na trenutnoj poziciji	-11,91921	0,00089	0,00303	0,00 (0,00)	0,02976	0,00 (0,00)
Radno iskustvo	-11,91921	0,00089	0,00303	0,00 (0,00)	0,02976	0,00 (0,00)
Ukupan radi staž	-11,91921	0,00089	0,00303	0,00 (0,00)	0,02976	0,00 (0,00)
Var. Expl.	-45,27298	2,46991	1,97762	-4 % (-4%)	0,49230	-1% (-5%)

Izvor: Istraživanje autora

Metodom klastera (grozdova) izvršeno je grupisanje sličnih varijabli socio-demografskih karakteristika menadžera u klastere koji pokazuju između kojih varijabli postoji visoka korelacija. Korišćena je VARHCA metoda (Tabela 7).

Tabela 7. Korelacija klastera struktura

Attribute	# membership	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
Društvo	0	0,1139	0,0601	-0,0445	0,2387
Pol	1	-0,0055	0,0314	-0,0467	0,7883
Kvalifikaciona struktura	0	0,0214	0,0660	0,3099	-0,0225
Starosna struktura	1	-0,0598	1,0000	0,3025	0,0557
Bračni status	1	0,8364	-0,0412	0,0341	-0,0376
Deca	1	0,9321	-0,0516	0,0184	0,0660
Broj dece	1	-0,8749	0,0651	-0,0411	-0,1109
Radno iskustvo	1	0,0372	0,3016	0,9936	-0,0556
Dužina rada na trenutnoj poziciji	1	0,0372	0,3016	0,9936	-0,0556
Priroda odgovornosti	0	-0,0569	-0,0340	0,0147	-0,6489
Hijerarhijski nivo	0	-0,0258	0,1191	0,3484	0,0346
Ukupan radni staž	1	0,0372	0,3016	0,9936	-0,0556

Izvor: Istraživanje autora

Rezultati prikazani u Tabeli 7. ukazuju da su se izdvojila četiri klastera. Klaster 1 ukazuje na jaku korelaciju između tri varijable: Deca, Broj dece i Bračno stanje, za koje se može reći da su uzročno-posledično povezane. Klaster 2. odnosi se na starosnu strukturu menadžera koja figuriše kao samostalna varijabla i ukazuje da su stariji menadžeri (na osnovu stečenog iskustva) uspešniji na profesionalnom planu. Klaster 3 pokazuje na značajnu korelaciju između radnih sposobnosti: Radno iskustvo, Dužina rada na trenutnoj poziciji i Ukupan radni staž. Klaster 4 odnosi se na Pol ispitanika koji predstavlja samostalnu varijablu u strukturi uticaja na ostale varijable.

Tabela 8. Višestruka faktorska analiza

Attribute	Axis_1	Axis_2	Axis_3	Axis_4	Axis_5
Društvo	-0,045500	-0,195509	0,365964	0,683499	-0,044932
Pol	-0,056816	0,001849	-0,529508	0,553383	0,414252
Kvalifikaciona struktura	0,307099	-0,006942	-0,243088	-0,310696	-0,058826
Starosna struktura	0,377429	0,110739	-0,046674	0,431426	-0,049054
Bračni status	0,056020	-0,824653	0,153614	-0,031031	0,201094
Deca	0,041244	-0,929459	-0,005737	0,005262	0,024169
Broj dece	-0,061833	0,870124	0,204297	0,102406	0,085684
Radno iskustvo	0,989993	0,014735	0,060554	0,014426	-0,037499
Dužina rada na trenutnoj poziciji	0,989993	0,014735	0,060554	0,014426	-0,037499
Priroda odgovornosti	0,013144	0,090973	0,633918	-0,163308	0,696486
Hijerarhijski nivo	0,346693	0,087494	-0,476006	-0,149999	0,549332
Ukupan radni staž	0,989993	0,014735	0,060554	0,014426	-0,037499

Izvor: Istraživanje autora

U Tabeli 8. prikazani su rezultati višestruke faktorske analize gde su se po značaju izdvojila dva faktora. U odnosu na značaj, prvi faktor sadrži varijable: Radno iskustvo, Dužina rada na trenutnoj poziciji i Ukupan radni staž, dok drugi faktor čine varijable: Deca, Broj dece i Bračno stanje.

U prikazanim faktorskim analizama došlo se do identičnih rezultata u domenu socio-demografskih karakteristika menadžera koje utiči na njegov profesionalni status.

Zaključak

Uspešnost savremenih kompanija zavisi od sposobnosti menadžera da istovremeno razvijaju upravljačke i liderske sposobnosti. Samo oni menadžeri koji planiraju, organizuju i kontrolišu odvijanje poslovnih procesa, s jedne, i koji imaju sposobnost da utiču na zaposlene, s druge strane doprinose boljim poslovnim rezultatima i obezbeđuju konkurentnost svojim kompanija. Potrebno je odrediti takav sistem motivacije i nagrađivanja koji podstiče fleksibilnost, inovativnost, kontinuirani razvoj i obuku zaposlenih u cilju postizanja visokih poslovnih performansi. Upravljački stil menadžera mora biti koordiniran sa upravljačkim zadatkom, što znači da prvo mora poći od toga kojim tipom ljudi upravlja i koje zadatke oni treba da izvrše. Imajući to u vidu, menadžer će izabrati stil koji najviše odgovara datoj situaciji. U ovom istraživanju se pokazalo da je stil liderstva određen i socio-demografskim karakteristikama menadžera. Ove karakteristike mogu se podvesti pod dva faktora, od kojih svaki obuhvata tri varijable. Prvi faktor se odnosi na praktično iskustvo (radno iskustvo, dužina rada na trenutnoj poziciji i ukupan radni staž), a drugi porodični status menadžera (deca, broj dece i bračno stanje), čime je potvrđena polazna hipoteza istraživanja. Na taj način uočava da je uspešnost menadžera determinisana njihovom sposobnošću da uspostave ravnotežu između porodičnog i profesionalnog statusa.

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PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF MANAGERS FROM THE ASPECT OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

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Abstract

In modern business conditions, growth and development of an organization depends on the ability of its managers to adequately coordinate the activities of employees. Managers are required to systematically and permanently improve and develop their own knowledge, abilities and skills in accordance with the dynamic changes of the global organizational environment. All this is reflected on their status in the organization. The aim of this paper is to investigate the interdependence and connection between socio-demographic characteristics of managers and professional status. Data collection was performed by an anonymous survey on a sample of 110 managers of different hierarchical levels. Descriptive statistics and factor analysis were used in data analysis. The obtained results showed that practical experience and family situation are the dominant socio-demographic factors. Only those employees who establish a balance between professional and family life, can fully dedicate themselves to the work they do and thus contribute to the improvement of business.

Key words: *managers, professional status, socio-demographic characteristics, organizational goals.*

Introduction

In the modern business environment, employees are the most valuable resource of organizations. Each employee consists of his knowledge, abilities and possibilities that managers need to recognize and accordingly assign them to those jobs where they will be able to contribute the most in achieving the set business goals, which includes an appropriate motivational climate. The first step that managers take in creating a motivational climate is to see employees as a specific person who has their own needs, essential values and expectations, which leads to strengthening their self-confidence and greater motivation. Motivated employees are energetic, full of enthusiasm, always successful in doing their job and, accordingly, strive to gain broader competencies. They are

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not afraid of change, they take a positive approach to every challenge, they pass it on to others in the organization, which has a positive effect on overall business performance. It is up to the managers to select people according to necessary skills, to have clearly defined goals and to adequately reward the achieved results. It should be borne in mind that the reward system is not only money that usually gives short-term results, but also showing active interest in the career of each employee, positive feedback on his results and expanding competencies as recognition of ability.

This paper aims to point out which socio-demographic characteristics of a manager affect his professional status and how they are grouped into a smaller number of factors. The starting hypothesis of the research is that the motivation of managers to express themselves on a professional level is significantly influenced by practical experience and family situation.

What are the makings of a successful manager

The main goal of a modern manager is to act more effectively and efficiently, which contributes to better organizational performance. It is often pointed out that „knowledge of how to work with others and with the help of others is the most important asset of any manager“ (Heller, 2002). The job of a manager is not only focused on personal promotion, but also on helping others to do their jobs in the best possible way. For this purpose, it is necessary to consider their functions, roles, skills and characteristics.

In relation to performing certain tasks and duties, while effectively coordinating the work of others, managers perform four functions: „planning, organizing, leading and controlling“ (Lekić, 2019). In planning based on market research, they set a mission, vision, goals and strategy. Organization refers to the concretization of goals into specific jobs and tasks, and their distribution to employees. Leadership is a managerial function that includes motivating, coordinating and communicating with employees in order to encourage them to give their best in achieving organizational goals. Control is a process of comparing the achieved results with previously set goals, in order to take appropriate corrective actions in case of deviations in order to eliminate them.

In his studies, Minzberg concluded that managers manifest ten roles in their business, i.e. specific ways of behaving, which he differentiated into: „1) interpersonal (head, leader, liaison function) - include tasks and tasks of a ceremonial nature, 2) informative monitor, spokesperson, internal information provider) - include internal and external reception, collection and dissemination of information and 3) decision making (entrepreneur, resource allocation, negotiator, problem solving) refers to the right choice in different business situations“ (Mintzberg, 1973).

In order to perform their duties and activities related to the function they perform, managers need technical, human and conceptual skills (Katz, 1974). Technical skills are important for line managers, human skills for all levels of managers, and conceptual skills for top managers.

Traits are „predispositions that represent the characteristics of a certain person who possesses or does not possess them and which enable him to behave in a certain way in given situations, as well as to successfully perform certain activities“ (Lekić, 2019). The characteristics of an effective manager refer to the fact that he is „diligent, intelligent, honest, ambitious, energetic, enthusiastic, flexible, imaginative, optimistic, brave, strong and stable person“ (Jovanović, 1997). It is difficult to find an ideal person who has all the above qualities. According to Adizes (1989), „The ideal manager is a producer of results, an excellent manager, entrepreneur and integrator of all functions within the company. He assesses his work according to how well the group he manages works, according to their individual and group results and to what extent the set goals and tasks have been realized.“

Manager's efficiency is manifested in several ways. First as „managerial or group performance - the manager is effective if the employees he manages are effective“ (Elenkov, 2002; Riggio et al., 2003), then as the „perceived effectiveness of the manager/leader - employees believe that the manager/leader is effective“ (Foti, Hauenstein, 2007; Anderson et al., 2008), then as „self-efficacy of leadership - the manager evaluates himself as an effective manager/leader“ (Ng et al., 2008) and finally as a manifestation of leadership - the manager sets a good example behavior and can convince other employees that he is a competent leader.

Based on all the above, it can be seen that the success of the manager depends on his way of working with other employees. This means that effective management of people requires both managerial and leadership skills. Management is based on "achieving organizational goals in an effective and efficient manner, through planning, organizing, leading and controlling organizational resources" (Daft, 2016). The basic traits of leadership are personal behavior and style. A leader acts on emotions in order to move employees with a vision and inspire them to realize that vision, which is characteristic in times of great change. Emotions „encourage, energize and direct behavior“ (Trebješanin, 2008). Management and leadership can be seen as two roles that are part of the same construct: on the one hand, rational management controls systems and work, while on the other, leadership addresses emotions through style and behavior.

Human resource management styles

Managers have a significant role in encouraging human resources to certain behaviors that should result in achievement of organizational goals. Human capital encompasses “employee competencies, abilities and values” (Bose, 2004), and how they will be directed depends on the management style. Leadership style is „the way in which relationships are established between managers and associates, as well as other employees in the company, or the way in which the manager directs the behavior of subordinates and the means he uses to win them over or persuade them to the desired behavior“ (Janićijević et al., 2020). Different management styles directly or indirectly affect the business performance of employees.

In this paper, the emphasis is on the classification of leadership styles in relation to authority and on new approaches to leadership. The most common division is in relation to the degree of use of authority, which distinguishes „autocratic, democratic and liberal style“ (Janićijević et al., 2020). Modern business conditions have imposed the need for new leadership styles, such as: transactional, transformational, charismatic, visionary, team and strategic leadership.

Autocratic leaders assign tasks to all employees and control their execution by applying a system of punishment and reward. They are reluctant to share information with their subordinates and adopt vertical communication from top to bottom, not allowing employees to be independent in performing assigned tasks (Farh, Cheng, 2000). This creates distance and mistrust between subordinates and leaders, leading to inefficiency of employees (Cheng, Wang, 2015). In a word, this style of leadership most often causes deviant behavior of employees, which has a negative impact on business results (Wang et al., 2005).

A democratic leader is people-oriented and encourages the participation of his associates in solving problems and making decisions. This style is often called participatory style because it encourages employees to actively participate in decision-making related to solving perceived organizational problems. A democratic leader understands the problems of his employees, and works with them to identify them and make decisions to overcome them (Sharma, Singh, 2013).

Liberal style is a leadership style where employees have a high degree of freedom in deciding on their own behavior and work. These leaders allow their subordinates a high degree of independence and to determine their own goals and determine the means for their realization, while providing them with the necessary information and connecting with the external environment. Research has shown that results are more effective when a leader's behavior meets the expectations of followers (Epitropaki, Martin, 2005), while in the case of developing perceptions of inefficiency in subordinates, leaders may not be able to motivate them to act in line with market demands (Eagly et al., 2003).

Sharing knowledge within a company is crucial for a dynamic economy and gaining a competitive advantage (Foss, Pederson, 2002). Research has shown that transactional leadership style significantly affects the choice, motivation and ability to share knowledge (Lu et al., 2006), as well as increasing job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Epitropaki, Martin, 2005). Greater job satisfaction also affects greater life satisfaction (Unanue et al., 2017). A transaction leader guides or motivates his followers by explaining to them the tasks and needs of the business. It is „leadership that seeks to maintain stability, through regular economic and social exchanges, in order to achieve specific goals, both for leaders and followers" (Lussier, Achua, 2001). This leadership style focuses on creating an enabling environment for employee creativity through the support (recognition and awards) of leaders (Oldham, Cummings, 1996) and their consistency with employees (Amabile et al., 2004).

Transformational leaders are "able to motivate employees to work beyond their expectations and capabilities by inspiring them with a vision and mission that everyone believes in" (Bass, 1990). They help their followers feel like a key factor in the company and help them understand how their business fits into the company's vision. Transformational leadership positively affects employee performance (Vincent-Höper et al., 2012; Lai et al., 2020), their self-efficacy, motivation, and creativity (Kim, Yoon, 2015; Bastari et al. 2021).

Charismatic leaders are „leaders who, by the power of their personal abilities, have a specific and extraordinary influence on their followers" (House, 1977). These are leaders the ones who „define a clear vision of the future based on firmly accepted values; emphasize these values by behavior that is in line with the vision; they transform followers' high performance expectations and believe in the ability of followers to achieve that vision" (Wildman, Yammarono, 1999). In this style, the way the leader conveys messages is important, which is especially evident in his non-verbal communication with followers (Sacavém et al., 2017).

Visionary leadership style refers to „the ability of a leader to create a positive image of the future that motivates employees in the company and provides them with guidelines for future planning and goal setting" (Thomas, Greenberger, 1995). After defining vision, leaders of this style demonstrate three abilities related to the effectiveness of their visionary roles: "1) the ability to explain the vision to others, 2) the ability to express the vision, both verbally and based on behaviors that permanently convey and enhance vision and 3) the ability to expand or apply the vision in different areas of leadership" (Robbins, Coulter, 2005: 434).

The challenge for managers is how to become effective team leaders in terms of their ability to know when to leave a team to work and when to step in. An effective team is able to share and use the talents and expertise of its members to make up for individual shortcomings, and integrates four basic processes: cognitive, motivational, affective, and coordination (Zaccaro et al., 2001).

Strategic leadership includes all those activities „that affect the behavior of employees in their efforts to formulate and implement planned strategies that will enable the company to achieve business goals" (Inyang, 2010). Today, when changes are happening in every segment of business, there is a growing need for strategic leadership, which refers to „the ability of an individual to recognize, warn, be flexible, think long-term and work with others to initiate change to create a sustainable future for organization" (Ireland, Hitt, 1999).

Numerous case studies have explored the impact of managerial and leadership style. The behavior of leaders is determined by their socio-biographical characteristics. Some authors point out that gender is often neglected (Hoobler et al., 2016). Gender role identity defines "stereotypical individual self-perception as male or female and encompasses those qualities that are considered ideal for each gender in society" (Wood, Eagly, 2009). Men are expected to show assertiveness, striving for high results and competitiveness, and women are expected to show empathy, goodwill and personal care for everyone else in the company (Diekman, Eagly, 2000). Age affects the ability of managers and their business performance (Doucouré, Diagne, 2020), and the quality of the team affects the overall satisfaction of employees (Lekić et al., 2020a). Wang & Chang (2005) indicate that work experience directly affects employee loyalty, and Steenkamp & Kashyapa (2010) research that employee loyalty does not have a direct impact on financial performance, but indirectly through relational capital. Structural capital (Lekić et al., 2020b) is directly related to human and relational capital, which „helps employees in the process of creating value" (Subramanian, Youndt, 2005).

Research methodology

The research subject was conducted in private and public companies, in the period from February to the end of April 2021 in the City of Belgrade. Data was collected by an anonymous questionnaire on a sample of 110 managers of different hierarchical levels and sectors. Socio-demographic structure of managers is considered through gender, age and qualification structure, marital status, number of children, work experience in management, time period of work in the current position, hierarchical level (top managers, middle managers and line managers), the nature of the responsibilities they have (general and functional managers) and the length of service. Descriptive statistics and factor analysis were used in the analysis of data on socio-demographic characteristics of managers.

Research results and discussion

Obtained results show that, out of the total research sample (N = 110), 67 respondents (60.91%) were from private companies participated, while 43 respondents (39.09%) were from the group of public companies. The average length of their work experience is 12.38 years.

Table 1. Sample structure by gender, age and qualification structure

Gender, age and qualification structure		Frequency	%
Gender structure	Male	72	65.45
	Female	38	34.55
	Total	110	100.00
Age structure	Less than 30 years of age	20	18.18
	Between 30 and 40 years of age	55	50.00
	Between 41 and 50 years of age	26	23.64
	Over 50 years	9	8.18
	Total	110	100.00
Qualification structure	Secundary education	7	6.36
	Higher education	20	18.18
	University degree	52	47.27
	Scientific title (master, doctor of science)	31	28.18
	Total	110	100.00

Source: Research by authors

From Table 1 it is evident that 65.45% of respondents are male and 34.55% of respondents are female. According to age, respondents are divided into four groups: 18.18 employees under the age of 30, 50.00% of employees between 30 and 40 years of age, 23.64% between 41 and 50 years of age and only 8.18% of respondents who are more than 50 years of age. Out of the total number of respondents, 47.27% have a university degree, then 28.18% have a scientific title (master, doctor of science), 18.18% have batchelor's degree, and only 6.36% have a high school diploma.

Table 2. Sample structure according to marital status and number of children

Marital status and number of childer		Frequency	%
Marital status	Marital / extramarital union	67	60.91
	Divorced	21	19.09
	Widow / widower	3	2.73
	Unmarried	19	17.27
	Total	110	100.00
Number of children	Without children	23	20.91
	One child	29	26.36
	Two children	46	41.82
	Three children	10	9.09
	More than three	2	1.82
	Total	110	100.00

Source: Research by authors

Based on the data shown in Table 2, it is noticed that out of the total number of surveyed managers, 60.91% live in a marital/extramarital union, while 19.09% are divorced. At the same time, 79.00% of respondents fulfilled the role of parents.

Table 3. Structure of respondents according to work experience in management

Work experience in management	Frequency	%
Less than 5 years	27	24.55
From 5 to 10 years	50	45.45
From 10 to 20 years	26	23.64
Over 20 years	7	6.36
Total	110	100.00

Source: Research by authors

In relation to work experience in management (Table 3), the research sample is heterogeneous. It ranges from less than 5 years to over 20 years, which gives them the opportunity to react in a timely manner to perceived problems.

Table 4. The structure of respondents according to the time period at the current instance

Time period of work on the current instance	Frequency	%
< 6 months	10	9.09
From 6 to 12 months	15	13.64
From 1 to 5 years	53	48.18
From 5 to 10 years	26	23.64
> 10 years	6	5.45
Total	110	100.00

Source: Research by authors

The structure of the respondents according to the time period at the current instance is interesting from the aspect of assessing the flexibility of managers to the specifics of the work they performs at that instance. The obtained results in relation to this indicator are shown in Table 4.

Table 5. Structure of respondents according to hierarchical and functional level

Hierarchical level of managers	Functional managers		General managers		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Line managers	67	72.83	3	16.67	70	63.64
Mid-level managers	25	27.17	10	55.56	35	31.82
Top managers	0	0.00	5	27.78	5	4.55
Total	92	83.64	18	16.36	110	100.00

Source: Research by authors

Table 5 shows the distribution of surveyed managers by vertical and horizontal structure. In relation to the hierarchical position, 70 respondents (63.64%) are line managers, 31.82% are mid level managers, and 4.55% are top managers. From the aspect of the level of responsibility, 83.64% belongs to functional and 16.36% to general managers.

Based on the presented analysis, it can be concluded that the sample is heterogeneous, which provides a satisfactory basis for testing the set research hypothesis.

Factor analysis of socio-demographic characteristics of managers was performed by factor rotation using the varimax method.

Table 6. Factor analysis using varimax factor rotation

Attribute	Communality Estimates		Axis_1		Axis_2	
-	Prior	Final	Corr.	Sq. (Cumul.)	Corr.	Sq. (Cumul.)
Children	0.70100	0.78888	0.88809	0.79 (0.79)	0.01301	0.00 (0.79)
Number of children	0.62947	0.68123	-0.79950	0.64 (0.64)	-0.20499	0.04 (0.68)
Marital status	0.50141	0.52187	0.72014	0.52 (0.52)	-0.05718	0.00 (0.52)
Hierarchical level	0.13915	0.20002	-0.06256	0.00 (0.00)	0.44284	0.20 (0.20)
Qualification structure	0.09446	0.11354	0.00229	0.00 (0.00)	0.33696	0.11 (0.11)
Age structure	0.10936	0.07894	-0.07572	0.01 (0.01)	0.27057	0.07 (0.08)
Society	0.05870	0.04380	0.13365	0.02 (0.02)	-0.16104	0.03 (0.04)
Nature of responsibility	0.12101	0.02786	-0.05898	0.00 (0.00)	-0.15616	0.02 (0.03)
Sex	0.04931	0.01019	-0.00824	0.00 (0.00)	0.10059	0.01 (0.01)
Length of work at current position	-11.91921	0.00089	0.00303	0.00 (0.00)	0.02976	0.00 (0.00)
Work experience	-11.91921	0.00089	0.00303	0.00 (0.00)	0.02976	0.00 (0.00)
Total work experience	-11.91921	0.00089	0.00303	0.00 (0.00)	0.02976	0.00 (0.00)
Var. Expl.	-45.27298	2.46991	1.97762	-4 % (-4%)	0.49230	-1% (-5%)

Source: Research by authors

Cluster method was used to group similar variables of socio-demographic characteristics of managers into clusters that show which variables are highly correlated. The VARHCA method was used (Table 7).

Table 7. Correlation of cluster structures

Attribute	# membership	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
Society	0	0.1139	0.0601	-0.0445	0.2387
Sex	1	-0.0055	0.0314	-0.0467	0.7883
Qualification structure	0	0.0214	0.0660	0.3099	-0.0225
Age structure	1	-0.0598	1.0000	0.3025	0.0557
Marital status	1	0.8364	-0.0412	0.0341	-0.0376
Children	1	0.9321	-0.0516	0.0184	0.0660
Number of children	1	-0.8749	0.0651	-0.0411	-0.1109
Work experience	1	0.0372	0.3016	0.9936	-0.0556
Length of work at current position	1	0.0372	0.3016	0.9936	-0.0556
Nature of responsibility	0	-0.0569	-0.0340	0.0147	-0.6489
Hierarchical level	0	-0.0258	0.1191	0.3484	0.0346
Total work experience	1	0.0372	0.3016	0.9936	-0.0556

Source: Research by authors

The results shown in Table 7 indicate that four clusters stood out. Cluster 1 indicates a strong correlation between three variables: Children, Number of Children and Marital Status, which can be said to be causally related. Cluster 2 refers to the age structure of managers, which appears as an independent variable and indicates that older managers (based on acquired experience) are more successful professionally. Cluster 3 shows a significant correlation between work abilities: Work experience, Length of work in the current position and Total work experience. Cluster 4 refers to the gender of the respondents, which is an independent variable in the structure of the influence on other variables.

Table 8. Multiple factor analysis

Attribute	Axis_1	Axis_2	Axis_3	Axis_4	Axis_5
Society	-0.045500	-0.195509	0.365964	0.683499	-0.044932
Sex	-0.056816	0.001849	-0.529508	0.553383	0.414252
Qualification structure	0.307099	-0.006942	-0.243088	-0.310696	-0.058826
Age structure	0.377429	0.110739	-0.046674	0.431426	-0.049054
Marital status	0.056020	-0.824653	0.153614	-0.031031	0.201094
Children	0.041244	-0.929459	-0.005737	0.005262	0.024169
Number of children	-0.061833	0.870124	0.204297	0.102406	0.085684
Work experience	0.989993	0.014735	0.060554	0.014426	-0.037499
Length of work at current position	0.989993	0.014735	0.060554	0.014426	-0.037499
Nature of responsibility	0.013144	0.090973	0.633918	-0.163308	0.696486
Hierarchical level	0.346693	0.087494	-0.476006	-0.149999	0.549332
Total work experience	0.989993	0.014735	0.060554	0.014426	-0.037499

Source: Research by authors

Table 8 shows the results of multiple factor analysis, where two factors stood out in terms of importance. The first factor contains the variables: Work experience, Length of work in the current position and Total work experience, while the second factor consists of the variables: Children, Number of children and Marital status.

In the presented factor analyzes, identical results were obtained in the domain of socio-demographic characteristics of the manager, which affects his professional status.

Conclusion

Success of modern companies depends on the ability of managers to simultaneously develop management and leadership skills. Only those managers who plan, organize and control the course of business processes, on one hand, and who have the ability to influence employees on the other, contribute to better business results and ensure the competitiveness of their companies. It is necessary to determine such a system of motivation and reward that encourages flexibility, innovation, continuous development and training of employees in order to achieve high business performance. The managerial style of a manager must be coordinated with the management task, which means that he must first start from what type of people he manages and what tasks they need to perform. With that in mind, the manager will choose the style that best suits the given situation.

This research showed that leadership style is also determined by the socio-demographic characteristics of managers. These characteristics can be summed up in two factors, each of which includes three variables. The first factor refers to practical experience (work experience, length of work in the current position and total work experience), and the second to the family status of the manager (children, number of children and marital status), which confirmed the initial research hypothesis. In this way, he notices that the success of managers is determined by their ability to strike a balance between family and professional status.

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ODRŽIVI MARKETING U FUNKCIJI ODRŽIVE URBANE MOBILNOSTI

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Rezime

Kako su opstanak i sudbina čovečanstva izvorno i neraskidivo uslovljeni stanjem prirodnog okruženja, vremenom je postalo jasno da odnos čoveka prema životnoj sredini i privredni rast i razvoj „po svaku cenu" više nisu ni mogući ni prihvatljivi i da je čovek, zapravo deo ekosistema iznad čijih zakonitosti neće moći zauvek da se uzdiže nekažnjeno. Suočena sa problemima koji, kao nusprodukti modernizacije već decenijama, devastiraju i narušavaju kvalitet života u urbanim sredinama ekološki osvešćena globalna zajednica insistira na kreiranju održivih gradova i „zelenije" urbane mobilnosti. Otuda namera autora da naglasi značaj prihvatanja koncepta održivog marketinga kako bi se podizanjem kolektivne svesti o važnosti tranzicije ka niskoemisionom društvu podstakla supstitucija navika i ponašanja u sferi urbane mobilnosti koje su u suprotnosti sa idejom održive urbane forme i vizijom „zelenog" grada. Istraživanje je bazirano na korišćenju sekundarnih podataka, analizi sadržaja dostupne stručne literature i relevantnih izveštaja Ujedinjenih nacija i nacionalnih institucija, kao i na primeni deskriptivne metode i metoda analize i sinteze. Članak se zaključuje nudeći okvir za primenu održivog marketinga i mere koje se mogu preduzeti u sferi kreiranja održive urbane mobilnosti.

Ključne reči: *urbanizacija, urbana mobilnost, održivi razvoj, urbana naselja, održivi marketing.*

JEL: M31, M37, Q56

Uvod

Savremeni svet, već uveliko suočen sa svešću da se Zemlja mora sačuvati kako za sadašnju, tako i za buduće generacije ljudi, održivi razvoj posmatra u skladu sa definicijom Svetske komisije za razvoj i zaštitu životne sredine kao „razvoj kojim

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se ide u susret potrebama sadašnjosti tako da se ne ugrožava mogućnost budućih generacija da zadovolje svoje sopstvene potrebe” i prihvata stav da je održivi razvoj „u suštini proces promena unutar koga su eksploatacija resursa, usmeravanje investicija, orijentacija tehnološkog razvoja i institucionalne promene u harmoniji i omogućavaju korišćenje sadašnjih i budućih potencijala kako bi se zadovoljile ljudske potrebe i aspiracije” (WCED, 1987). S tim u vezi, obaveza današnje generacije da ostavi potomstvu bar onoliko šansi za razvoj koliko ih ona ima, proistekla je iz fundamentalnih principa unutargeneracijske i međugeneracijske jednakosti, jer činjenica je da sadašnja generacija ima pravo na iskorišćavanje potencijala resursne baze i na zdravu životnu sredinu, ali isto tako i obavezu prema generacijama koje dolaze. Iz ove perspektive, održivi razvoj uslovljen potrebom da se uvažava kapacitet prirode kako bi se obezbedili resursi i usluge potrebne za život zapravo podrazumeva unapređenje kvaliteta ljudskog života u granicama kapaciteta podnošenja (*carrying capacity*) ekosistema koji ga podržavaju (IUCN, UNEP, WWF-I, 1991).

Antropocentričnim (homocentričnim) poimanjem odnosa čoveka i Prirode stvorena je predstava o dobroj i darežljivoj Prirodi koja kao neiscrpni resurs pokorno služi zadovoljavanju čovekovih nezasitih potreba. Sa blagodetima civilizacije koje su inicirane industrijalizacijom i neslućenim napretkom novih tehnologija rasli su i problemi ugrožavanja i očuvanja čovekove okoline. Brzi rast stanovništva na globalnom nivou, praćen intenzivnim tehničkim i tehnološkim procesima, rezultirao je rastućim potrebama za neobnovljivom energijom, sirovinama i drugim prirodnim resursima, posebno u zemljama sa najvećom stopom rasta stanovništva, odnosno u zemljama koje su se naglo i brzo razvijale (Munitlak-Ivanović, et al., 2017). „Ekonomski razvoj je tokom čitavog XX veka nagomilavao probleme u životnoj sredini koji nisu mimoišli ni gradove. Dinamika urbanog razvoja, nastanak velikih aglomeracija i opasnost od povišenog nivoa aerozagađenja u gradovima i njihovoj okolini determinisani su i apsolutnim porastom broja stanovnika na Planeti i povećanjem udela gradskog stanovništva. Kao živi organizmi gradovi su se, pod uticajem ponašanja i delovanja svih pojedinaca koji čine sastavni deo urbane zajednice razvijali, napredovali i prostorno i društveno-ekonomski transformisali.” Urbani razvoj dešavao se paralelno sa „osvajanjem” plodnog poljoprivrednog zemljišta, modifikovanjem njegove primarne namene, uništavanjem prirodnog habitata i ugrožavanjem osetljivih ekosistema. „Sasvim je jasno da su čovek, njegove aktivnosti i navike koje su oblikovane blagodetima savremene civilizacije i modernizacijom svih aspekata svakodnevnog života zapravo glavni uzrok i neuralgična tačka ekološki sve više ugroženih gradova” (Vujović, Vujović, 2017).

Zato ne čudi što se antropogeni faktor pri deskripciji čovekovog nemara prema životnoj sredini sve češće navodi kao generator dugoročnog dramatičnog degradiranja i devastiranja Prirode i pustošenja raspoloživih resursa. S tim u vezi, razumevanje ključnih aktuelnih trendova urbanizacije, ali i onih koji će se verovatno odvijati tokom narednih godina presudno je za sprovođenje Agende 2030, s obzirom da su inkluzivni, bezbedni, prilagodljivi i održivi gradovi i naselja postali jedan od sedamnaest globalnih ciljeva održivog razvoja (*Sustainable Development Goals*) proizašlih iz osam Milenijumskih ciljeva razvoja za jedan Svet. Tim pre što se urbanizacija veoma često, pored veličine populacije i starosne strukture stanovništva navodi kao demografska varijabla koja se svrstava u značajne determinante emisije štetnih gasova (Petrović, et al., 2018). Upotreba motornih vozila je posebno intenzivna u urbanim zonama pa se pretpostavlja da se sa ubrzanjem procesa urbanizacije povećava emisija CO_2 i drugih štetnih gasova u gradskim sredinama. S obzirom da je pozitivan uticaj urbanizacije na emisiju gasova sa efektom staklene bašte potvrđen kao signifikantan u brojnim empirijskim studijama (Poumanyvong, Kaneko, 2010; York, 2007; Cole, Neumayer, 2004), ideja je da se prikazom prostorno-demografskih promena u pravcu ubrzanog procesa urbanizacije i povećanja upotrebe motornih vozila ukaže na hitnost promene obrasca ponašanja i transformacije ustaljenjnih navika u pogledu urbane mobilnosti. S obzirom na visoke stope rasta urbanih naselja i rastući udeo gradskog u ukupnom stanovništvu sveta, ali i zbog činjenice da danas, gotovo polovina svetskog stanovništva živi u naseljima sa statusom grada pitanje održive urbane mobilnosti nameće se kao prioritetno.

Od marketing koncepta do koncepta održivog marketinga

Decenijama unazad marketing je bio izložen kritikama zbog (navodno) direktnog podsticanja prekomerne potrošnje i daljeg razvoja visoko konzumerističkog (neodrživog) društva. „Marketing se krivi za stvaranje lažnih potreba, podsticanje pohlepe i čak podsticanje zajednica na prekomernu potrošnju i materijalizam. Takođe, da teži da promoviše preveliki interes za posedovanjem - ljudi se procenjuju po onome što imaju, a ne po tome ko su" (Seretny, & Seretny, 2012).

Evoluirajući tokom vremena marketing je značajno uticao na ekološku osvešćenost na nacionalnom, regionalnom i planetarnom nivou. Danas „zelenija” budućnost kojoj se teži postaje sve izvesnija upravo zahvaljujući konceptu održivog marketinga. „Od početka dvadesetog veka i najintenzivnije tokom poslednjih šezdeset godina marketing se razvijao - od marketinga zasnovanog na proizvodima (1.0) do marketinga usredsređenog na kupca (2.0) do marketinga sa fokusom na čoveka (3.0)″ (Kotler, Kartajaya, Setiawan, 2017). Danas smo svedoci nastanka nove ere, definisane kao Marketing 3.0, epoha, zasnovanoj na vrednosti, u kojoj se ljudi više ne percipiraju kao ciljno tržište potrošača bazirano na demografskom faktoru, već kao prilično promišljeni i inteligentni partneri sa emocijama, osećanjima i specifičnim duhovnim vrednostima (Kotler, Kartajaya, & Setiawan, 2010).

Ekološki marketing koji je primarno bio usmeren na osporavanje proizvoda i tehnoloških procesa i postupaka koji imaju ili mogu imati negativan i štetan uticaj na okruženje evoluirao je u zeleni marketing koji se, u cilju omogućavanja uporedne egzistencije ekonomskog i prirodnog sistema na dugi rok inicijalno odnosio na popularizovanje „zelenih“ proizvoda i podsticanje njihove kupovine. Međutim, zeleni marketing i dalje sledi ekonomsku paradigmu koja se fokusira na tradicionalni proces ekonomske razmene i profit kao krajnji cilj (Jamrozy, 2007). Štaviše, strategije zelenog marketinga fokusiraju se na zelene potrošače, koji rado plaćaju veće cene za ekološki prihvatljive proizvode.

Buđenjem odgovornosti prema Planeti, ali i armiji lojalnih i potencijalnih potrošača dolazi do promena u pravcu podrške razvoja proizvoda koji su dizajnirani tako da minimiziraju negativne efekte na fizičko okruženje uz istovremeno poboljšanje i unapređenje postojećeg nivoa kvaliteta. Savremeni koncept održivog marketinga još intenzivnije doprinosi ekološkoj osvešćenosti insistiranjem na kreiranju, proizvodnji i isporuci održivih rešenja koja su u funkciji kontinualnog ostvarivanja ravnoteže između ciljeva društva (zaštita životne sredine), potrošača (zadovoljenje potreba) i preduzeća (profit) (Sudarević & Milovanov, 2015). Dakle, održivi marketing sugeriše neophodnost kreiranja održivih modela rasta i razvoja koji počivaju na ispunjavanju tri krucijalna kriterijuma: zadovoljavanje potreba potrošača i društva kao celine, ostvarivanje ciljeva organizacije, uz uvažavanje i naglašenu usklađenost sa potrebama ekosistema (Fuller, 1999).

Održivi marketing stoga treba posmatrati kao deo marketinga koji je prateći element održivog ekonomskog razvoja. S tim u vezi, u okviru održivog razvoja, marketing je prošao kroz tri faze. Prva faza: ekološki marketing usredsređen na ekološke probleme, poput zagađenja vazduha i vode, iscrpljivanja prirodnih resursa i uticaja đubriva i pesticida koji se koriste u poljoprivredi. Druga faza datira iz osamdesetih godina prošlog veka: marketing životne sredine, fokusiran na razvoju modernih, ekološki prihvatljivih, „čistih“ tehnologija. U centru marketinških aktivnosti bio je „zeleni segment kupaca“, jer je odgovorna akcija prepoznata kao konkurentska prednost. Treća faza je trenutna era održivog marketinga koja ima za cilj odgovoran ekonomski i socijalni razvoj (Hunt, 2011).

Iz tog razloga konceptu održivog marketinga pripada važna uloga na putu postizanja globalno dogovorenih ciljeva održivog razvoja primarno orijentisanih ka ostvarivanju ekonomskog prosperiteta i društvenog blagostanja uz zaštitu životne sredine, kao i realizaciji ideje o održivoj „zelenijoj” mobilnosti u gradovima. Cilj istraživanja usmeren je ka isticanju uloge koju koncept održivog marketinga može imati u procesu kreiranja održive urbane mobilnosti.

Prostorno-demografske promene i proces ubrzane urbanizacije na globalnom i nacionalnom nivou

Sve do kasnog osamnaestog veka urbanizacija nije predstavljala značajnu pojavu za svet (Milutinović, 2004). Početkom XIX veka samo 3% svetskog stanovništva živelo je u gradskim naseljima. Tokom veka taj broj se gotovo upetostručio, tako da je početkom XX veka 14% stanovništva Planete živelo u naseljima koja su imala status grada (Miličić, 2004). Svetska populacija kroz proces ubrzane urbanizacije prolazi naročito od 1950. kada je od ukupno 2.516,5 miliona stanovnika sveta u gradovima živelo 733,7 miliona stanovnika, odnosno više od dve trećine (70%) svetske populacije naseljavalo je seoska naselja. Na početku novog milenijuma svet se suočio sa neočekivanim urbanim porastom, a rezultat toga je da gotovo polovina svetskog stanovništva živi u naseljima sa statusom grada. Prema podacima Ujedinjenih nacija 2000. godine broj gradske populacije dostigao je 3.197,6 miliona, što je gotovo za 700 miliona više nego što je 1950. godine bilo stanovnika na planeti (United Nations, 2003). 2007. godine prvi put u istoriji svetska urbana populacija premašila je broj globalno ruralnog stanovništva, i od tada se broj stanovnika gradova i dalje povećava brže od broja stanovnika u ruralnim sredinama. Tokom druge decenije novog milenijuma planetarni trend povećanja urbane populacije kreirao je novu realnost savremenog sveta: u sadašnjem trenutku u gradovima živi više od polovine Planete. Naime, od ukupnog broja svetske populacije, danas čak više od 55% ljudi (4,2 milijarde) živi u urbanim područjima, sa tendencijom rasta u narednih trideset godina. Po prvi put u istoriji razvoja čovečanstva u 2018. godini broj stanovnika u ruralnim naseljima pao je na nivo manji od 50% u odnosu na stanovništvo urbanih naselja (3,4 milijarde). Na osnovu raspoloživih podataka evidentno je da je za 70 godina, gradska populacija sveta porasla više nego četiri puta, sa približno 0,8 milijardi 1950. godine na 4,2 milijarde 2018. Eksplozivan rast urbane svetske populacije ilustruju podaci iz Tabele 1.

Tabela 1. Ukupno, urbano i ruralno stanovništvo po razvojnim grupama i odabranim godinama u periodu od 1950.-2050. godine

	Stanovništvo (u milijardama)					
Razvojne grupe	1950.	1970.	1990.	2018.	2030.	2050.
Ukupan broj stanovnika						
Svet	2,54	3,70	5,33	7,63	8,55	9,77
Razvijeniji regioni	0,81	1,01	1,15	1,26	1,29	1,30
Manje razvijeni regioni	1,72	2,69	4,18	6,37	7,26	8,47
Gradsko stanovništvo						
Svet	0,75	1,35	2,29	4,22	5,17	6,68
Razvijeniji regioni	0,45	0,67	0,83	0,99	1,05	1,12
Manje razvijeni regioni	0,30	0,68	1,46	3,23	4,12	5,56
Ruralno stanovništvo						
Svet	1,79	2,35	3,04	3,41	3,38	3,09
Razvijeniji regioni	0,37	0,33	0,32	0,27	0,24	0,17
Manje razvijeni regioni	1,42	2,01	2,72	3,14	3,14	2,92

Izvor: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Population Division, World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision, New York, 2019.

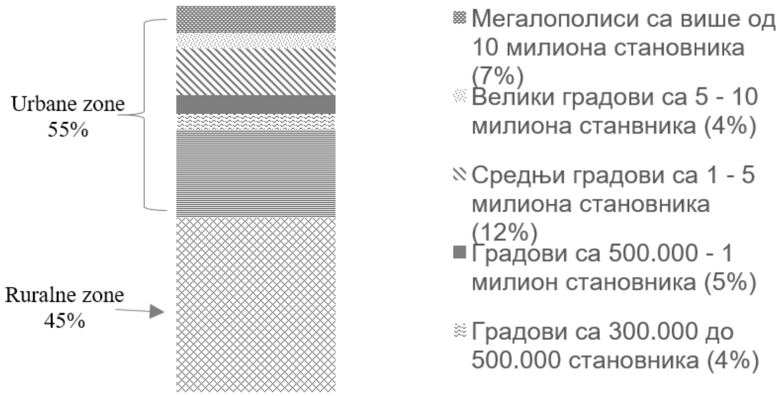
Ukoliko se najnovije dugoročne projekcije Ujedinjenih nacija pokažu istinitim, može se očekivati da će u narednom periodu zapravo celokupan rast svetske populacije biti determinisan porastom broja stanovnika u urbanim sredinama. To jest, u periodu između 2018.-2050. godine očekuje se porast gradskog stanovništva za 2,5 milijardi osoba, sa 4,2 milijarde na 6,7 milijardi, dok se predviđa da će se svetska populacija u narednih 30 godina povećati nešto manje, za 2,1 milijardu, sa 7,6 milijardi u 2018. godini na 9,8 milijardi u 2050. Znatan rast gradskog stanovništva, kao i u prethodnim godinama biće podstaknut dejstvom nekoliko faktora, od kojih su presudni: prirodni priraštaj, ruralno-urbana migracija i geografska ekspanzija urbanih naselja kroz aneksiju i transformaciju ruralnih lokaliteta u gradska naselja (United Nations, 2019).

Na globalnom nivou vidljive su upečatljive razlike u obrascima urbanizacije između razvijenijih i manje razvijenih regiona. Dok trenutno nešto manje od polovine stanovništva manje razvijenih regiona živi u ruralnim područjima, velika većina u razvijenim delovima sveta živi u urbanim naseljima. Međutim, urbano stanovništvo manje razvijenih regiona raste znatno brže nego što je slučaj u razvijenim regionima, i kao rezultat savremenih trendova, njen udeo u gradskom stanovništvu sveta je u porastu. 1950. godine gradsko stanovništvo razvijenijih regija bilo je znatno brojnije od stanovništva manje razvijenih regiona (446 miliona nasuprot 305 miliona), tako da su razvijeniji regioni sa 59% učestvovali u svetskoj gradskoj populaciji. Već od pedesetih godina prošlog veka obrasci rasta gradskog stanovništva razvijenih i manje razvijenih regija pokazivali su znake divergencije, pri čemu je uočena tendencija usporavanja rasta urbane populacije razvijenijeg dela sveta. Kao posledica toga, do 1970. godine gradsko stanovništvo manje razvijenih regiona je po broju nadmašilo gradsko stanovništvo razvijenijih regiona (680 miliona prema 674 miliona), a razlika se, tokom decenija koje su usledile naglo povećala. Prema izveštaju Ujedinjenih nacija u 2018. godini tri puta više stanovnika živelo je u gradovima manje razvijenih regiona (3,2 milijardi nasuprot 1,0 milijarde stanovnika urbanih naselja razvijenih zemalja), tako da su gradovi manje razvijenih regiona činili 76% svetske gradske populacije i 84% ukupne populacija sveta (United Nations, 2019).

Brzi urbani rast koji karakteriše gotovo sve geografske regione sveta doveo je do velikog porasta u broju gradskih stanovnika. Urbano stanovništvo Afrike povećalo se u periodu između 1950. i 2018. godine za šesnaest puta, povećavajući se sa 33 na 548 miliona. Urbano stanovništvo Azije povećalo se za devet puta, sa 246 miliona na približno 2,3 milijarde, dok je broj stanovnika Latinske Amerike i Kariba porastao sedam puta, sa 70 miliona na 526 miliona. Broj stanovnika gradova u Severnoj Americi se više nego udvostručio (sa 110 miliona na 299 miliona), dok je u Okeaniji utrostručen (sa 8 na 28 miliona). Čak i gradsko stanovništvo Evrope, čije su stope rasta relativno niske, skoro se udvostručilo tokom istog period, sa 284 na 553 miliona (United Nations, 2019). Uprkos relativno niskom stepenu urbanizacije (oko 50%), Azija, kao najmnogoljudniji kontinent ima najveći broj stanovnika koji žive u urbanim sredinama (2,3 milijarde u 2018. godini), sledi Evropa, sa populacijom od 553 miliona u urbanim sredinama, zatim Afrika sa 548 miliona (kao uglavnom ruralna, sa 43% stanovništva u gradskim oblastima) i Latinska Amerika i Karibi sa 526 miliona stanovnika koji žive u urbanim područjima.

Imajući u vidu da je tranzicija iz ruralnih u urbana područja aktuelna od vremena Prve industrijske revolucije, grupa velikih gradskih aglomeracija populaciono je rasla, sve brže šireći mrežu metropola širom sveta. Naime, tokom poslednja dva veka, desila se još jedna velika promena u distribuciji svetske populacije: sve veća i da sada neprevaziđena koncentracija ljudi u visoko urbanizovanim oblastima, poznatim kao urbane aglomeracije. Najveće od ovih aglomeracija na vrhu urbane hijerarhije su one sa 10 ili više miliona stanovnika, takozvani, megalopolisi. Trideset tri megalopolisa u Africi, Aziji, Evropi, Latinskoj i Severnoj Americi čine 7% ukupne svetske populacije u 2018 (Grafikon 1). Sledeća grupa sastoji se od velikih gradova sa 5 do 10 miliona stanovnika, što koncentriše još 4% svetske populacije. Ostale kategorije urbane hijerarhije definisane su kao srednji gradovi sa 1 do 5 miliona, gradovi sa 500.000 do milion, gradovi sa 300.000 do 500.000 i gradska naselja sa manje od 300.000 stanovnika, koja su u 2018. godini u ukupnom svetskom stanovništvu učestvovala sa 12, 5, 4, odnosno 23% (United Nations, 2019).

Grafikon 1. Stanovništvo sveta, prema zonama naseljenosti i prema veličini urbanih naselja, 2018. godine



Izvor: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Population Division, World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision, New York, 2019

O ubrzanom rastu urbanih aglomeracija govore i sledeći podaci. 1990. godine bilo je 10 gradova sa više od 10 miliona stanovnika u kojima je živelo 153 miliona ljudi, što je predstavljalo manje od 7% ukupne gradske populacije. 2018. godine na prostoru 20 država smestilo se 33 takozvanih megalopolisa, odnosno urbanih aglomeracija sa 10 ili više miliona stanovnika. Posmatrani zajedno megalopolisi predstavljaju dom za 529 miliona ljudi, što je otprilike osmina svetskog urbanog stanovništva. Pritom, Tokio je najveći grad na svetu sa aglomeracijom od nešto više od 37 miliona stanovnika, a slede Delhi sa 29 miliona, Šangaj sa približno 26, Sao Paulo (Brazil) i Meksiko Siti sa blizu 22 i Kairo sa 20 miliona stanovnika. Među preostalih top 10 mega-gradova nalaze se Bombaj, Peking, Daka (Bangladeš) i Osaka sa nešto više od 19 i New York sa gotovo 19 miliona stanovnika, što svedoči da je 6 od 10 najvećih metropola sveta locirano na prostoru azijskog kontinenta (United Nations, 2019).

S obzirom na visoke stope rasta urbanih naselja i rastući udeo gradskog u ukupnom stanovništvu sveta, potrebno je ukazati na važne činjenice. Naime, prema izveštaju Ujedinjenih nacija svetski gradovi zauzimaju samo 3% Zemljine površine, ali urbane aktivnosti sa 60-80% učestvuju u potrošnji energije i generišu 75% celokupne emisije ugljen-dioksida kao i značajne količine drugih štetnih gasova i zagađujućih materija. Od 2016. godine, 90% stanovnika gradova stalno je izloženo štetnom dejstvu suspendovanih čestica iz vazduha, što je za posledicu imalo 4,2 miliona smrti usled povećanih koncentracija zagađenja vazduha (www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/cities). Više od polovine svetskog gradskog stanovništva bilo je izloženo nivoima zagađenja vazduha najmanje 2,5 puta višim od standarda sigurnosti (www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/cities).

Slično kao i kod većine država Jugoistočne Evrope, proces intenzivne urbanizacije u Republici Srbiji započet je tek u drugoj polovini XX veka. Sve do šezdesetih godina prošlog veka Srbija je u pogledu privredne strukture imala isključivo poljoprivredni karakter, dok je po strukturi naseljenosti bila ruralna sredina. U godinama nakon Drugog svetskog rata uočavaju se značajne prostorno-demografske promene, inicirane snažnim procesom primarne urbanizacije i deagrarizacije stanovništva, zapravo, intenzivnim migracionim tokovima na relaciji selo-grad. Do 1953. godine urbano stanovništvo činilo je nešto više od jedne petine ukupnog stanovništva (22,5%), dok je istovremeno oko dve trećine aktivnog stanovništva bilo zaposleno u poljoprivredi (67%). Za gotovo pola veka (2011. godine), u gradskim naseljima Srbije živelo je 59,44% (4.271.872) od ukupnog stanovništva, a zaposlenih u primarnom sektoru delatnosti bilo je 11,8% (Ministarstvo građevinarstva, saobraćaja i infrastrukture Republike Srbije, p. 4). Sasvim razumljivo, usporavanje procesa ubrzane urbanizacije na našim prostorima započinje tek „pražnjenjem" tradicionalnih demografskih „rezervoara", prvenstveno naglašeno ruralnih sredina.

Proces „odlivanja“ stanovištva u pravcu ekonomski razvijenih sredina imao je za posledicu stvaranje zona demografske ekspanzije i visoke koncentracije stanovništva i zona konstantne depopulacije, odnosno sve izraženiju prostorno-demografsku polarizaciju. Komparativnom analizom uočava se da ove dve zone imaju dijametralno suprotne osnovne prostorno-demografske karakteristike. „Zone demografske ekspanzije uglavnom determiniše relativno mali prostorni obuhvat, visok stepen aglomeriranja stanovništva i aktivnosti, visok nivo opšte naseljenosti i relativno povoljne relevantne demografske strukture, a po pravilu predstavljaju imigraciono atraktivna visoko urbanizovana područja. Za razliku od njih, zone depopulacije predstavljaju demografski egzodusne, teritorijalno velike i relativno slabo naseljene prostore, dominantno ruralnog karaktera, sa konstantno opadajućom populacijom, kod koje su praktično svi negativni efekti (proces starenja stanovništva, konstantan pad stopa nataliteta i rast stopa opšteg mortaliteta) demografske tranzicije najizraženiji” (Stojanović, Vojković, 2005). Tako su formirani periurbani prstenovi – gravitaciona područja koja gravitiraju oko jačih funkcionalnih centara među kojima se izdvajaju periurbani prsten metropolitenskog beogradskog područja, novosadska funkcionalno-urbana aglomeracija, kao i periurbana područja oko Niša i Kragujevca (Ministarstvo građevinarstva, saobraćaja i infrastrukture Republike Srbije).

Karakteristična za prostor Srbije je i pojava prinudnih migracija, koje su, u značajnoj meri uticale na trendove urbanizacije. Kako se može zaključiti, u strukturi demografskog rasta gradova Srbije već decenijama dominantnu ulogu ima mehanička komponenta (unutrašnje migracije), dok je uticaj biološke komponente u formi prirodnog priraštaja (zbog usporavanja biološkog obnavljanja) osetno manji. Upravo iz tog razloga nimalo nije pogrešno reći da migracije stanovništva predstavljaju najvažniju determinantu promena prostornog razmeštaja stanovništva Republike Srbije. Da su globalne tendencije populacionog buma u gradskim sredinama prisutne i na prostoru naše zemlje potvrđuju podaci poslednjeg popisa stanovništva na osnovu kojih, u gradskim naseljima, koja čine 3,6% od ukupnog broja naselja u Srbiji (bez KiM), živi gotovo 60% ukupnog stanovništva Republike (Republički zavod za statistiku, 2014). Naličje i produkti depopulacije i demografskog pražnjenja sela ogledaju se u kreiranju zagušenih, bučnih i prenaseljenih gradova koji su, veoma često kao tipično veštačke sredine suprotstavljeni Prirodi i otuđeni od nje.

Motorna vozila na putevima sveta, Evrope i Republike Srbije

Negativni efekat motora sa unutrašnjim sagorevanjem na životnu sredinu, a time i automobila koji se pokreću korišćenjem tradicionalnih goriva, pored nekontrolisanog iscrpljivanja prirodnih resursa planete Zemlje, koji nisu obnovljivi, ogleda se u aerozgađenju. Uticaj izduvnih gasova na zagađenje vazduha u gradovima i njihovoj okolini je značajan, a s obzirom da ukupan broj motornih vozila na globalnom nivou rapidno raste „ozelenjavanje" gradova se, na putu održivog razvoja nameće kao jedan od prioriteta trećeg milenijuma.

Automobil je danas jedno od najrasprostranjenijih sredstava za prevazilaženje fizičkih distanci. Broj automobila, autobusa i kamiona svakodnevno se povećava. Već sredinom 2010. godine, po prvi put je bilo registrovano više od milijardu automobila širom sveta. Početkom 2019. bilo ih je oko četvrt milijarde više. Sa nadolazećim i brzo rastućim ekonomijama, poput Kine ili Indije i rezultirajućim poboljšanjem nivoa životnog standarda lokalnog stanovništva, sve veći broj ljudi će biti u prilici da sebi priušti „ljubimca" na četiri točka. A zbog činjenice da je reč o zemljama ogromne populacije verovatno će se rast broja automobila na globalnom nivou nastaviti i još više povećavati. Sa 3,1 automobila, koliko se proizvede tokom jedne sekunde, u svetu se na godišnjem nivou proizvodi oko 100 miliona novih automobila, a taj broj će se, svakako usled očekivanog eksplozivnog populacionog buma i razvoja tehnoloških dostignuća značajno povećavati tokom sledećih decenija. Proračuni govore da će do 2035. godine preko 1,8 milijardi automobila biti u upotrebi širom sveta (www.live-counter.com/number-of-cars).

Iako je globalna prodaja automobila i lakih komercijalnih vozila u 2018. godini smanjena za 0,5%, na 54 najvećih svetskih tržišta prodato je oko 86 miliona vozila. Prodaja električnih automobila dostigla je rekordni nivo, s obzirom da je tokom godine prodato 1,26 miliona putničkih električnih automobila, što je porast za ogromnih 74%. Bilo je to jedno od najvećih porasta među svim kategorijama automobila na globalnom tržištu, što se može objasniti uticajem nekoliko faktora. Prvo, kineska potražnja za električnim vozilima porasla je tokom godine, jer je ovaj tip automobila dobio veću vidljivost među potrošačima, delom i zahvaljujući činjenici da su lokalne vlasti promovisale njihov uticaj na životnu sredinu. Drugo, Tesla Model 3 postao je najprodavaniji električni auto-brend na svetu, jer je podstaknut prodajom u Severnoj Americi, gde je prvi put postao dostupan. Konačno, dizel-kriza u Evropi doprinela je, takođe podizanju svesti potrošača o prednostima vožnje električnim aitomobilima (www.best-selling-cars.com/global).

Vozni park putničkih automobila Evropske unije porastao je tokom poslednjih pet godina za 5,7%, tako da je broj vozila na putevima evropskog kontinenta povećan sa 243 na 257 miliona. Uprkos porastu broja registracija putničkih automobila sa alternativnim pogonom poslednjih godina, automobili koji ne koriste tradicionalna pogonska goriva čine samo 3,4% ukupnog voznog parka EU. Automobili na prostoru Evropske unije u proseku su stari 10,5 godina. Prosečna starost automobila drastično varira od zemlje do zemlje zavisno od toga da li pripadaju bogatom zapadu ili siromašnijem istoku. Litvanija i Rumunija, tako imaju najstarije flote, sa vozilima starijim od 16 godina, dok se „najmlađi" automobili voze drumovima Luksemburga (prosečna starost 6,3 godine) i Ujedinjenog Kraljevstva (7,8 godina). Zanimljivo je da, u Mađarskoj skoro polovina svih domaćinstava (48,3%) nema automobil, a u Danskoj skoro 40%. Suprotno tome, više od 30% francuskih porodica poseduje dva automobila (www.acea.be/statistics/article).

Broj drumskih motornih vozila registrovanih tokom 2018. godine u Republici Srbiji u blagom je porastu u odnosu na broj registrovanih vozila u prethodnoj godini. Kada je reč o našoj zemlji broj ukupno registrovanih drumskih motornih i priključnih vozila 2018. bio je na nivou od gotovo 2, 472,748 miliona, od čega je 1.999.771 putničkih automobila, a samo na području grada Beograda registrovano je 568.308 što je više od broja u celom regionu Šumadije i Zapadne Srbije (527.623) (Republički zavod za statistiku, 2019). Kada su u pitanju vozila koja ne koriste konvencionalna pogonska goriva, broj registrovanih automobila je i dalje na veoma niskom nivou. Na putevima naše zemlje prisutno je skromnih 173 vozila na električni pogon, kao i 255 hibridnih vozila, a prosečna starost automobila koji se voze u Srbiji procenjuje se na 17 godina. S obzirom na važeću regulativu, koja još uvek omogućava uvoz „punoletnih" vozila, nimalo nije čudno što na našim putevima preovladavaju vozila iz prošle decenije i što je broj vozila iz prošlog veka daleko iznad onih sa motorima poslednje dve uvedene emisione klase (Euro 5 i Euro 6 standard). Činjenica da sa povećanjem broja vozila, naročito onih koja zemlje razvijene Evrope zakonima „proteruju" sa svojih drumova raste i zagađenje, a da „zagađivači" na četiri točka u velikoj meri devastiraju kvalitet vazduha u gradskim sredinama ukazuje na hitnost preduzimanja zaštitnih mera, kako bi se predupredila ekološka šteta koja je u najavi i pronašli načini supstitucije ustaljenih navika i ponašanja u urbanim zonama. Tim pre što merenje koncentracije zagađujućih materija, posmatrano po urbanim naseljima, pokazuje da tek trećina stanovništva ima vazduh dobrog kvaliteta, dok dve trećine ima vazduh čiji je kvalitet potrebno poboljšati (Strategija održivog urbanog razvoja Republike Srbije do 2030. godine).

„Kako je broj vozila sa niskom emisijom ugljenika (g/km) na putevima Srbije zanemarljiv, promociji „zelene" urbane mobilnosti i kreiranju održivih gradova koji nude željeni kvalitet životnog i radnog ambijenta kako u sadašnjem trenutku, tako i u budućnosti potrebno je posvetiti posebnu pažnju. S tim u vezi, od višestruke važnosti je spoznaja što većeg procenta urbane populacije da lokalno aerozagađenje uglavnom ima regionalne i globalne implikacije" (Vujović, Vujović, 2017).

Zaključne napomene: kako do održive urbane mobilnosti

Kroz strategije razvoja kompaktnih gradova, koji postaju ideal održive urbane forme, evropske zemlje promovišu plansko ograničavanje prostorne ekspanzije gradova, ali i veću energetsku efikasnost i manji uticaj na zagađenje, pre svega zbog mešovite namene prostora i veće gustine naseljenosti, što zahteva kraća putovanja od mesta stanovanja do mesta rada i drugih aktivnosti i korišćenje održivih vidova saobraćaja. Pritom, prihvatanje koncepta održivog marketinga i primene, njemu raspoloživih tehnika u funkciji su kreiranja „zelenije" urbane mobilnosti i pronalaženja načina supstitucije ustaljenih navika i ponašanja stanovnika u urbanim zonama. U procesu pripreme, usvajanja i primene planova održive urbane mobilnosti (POUM) koje predviđa Strategija održivog urbanog razvoja Republike Srbije do 2030. godine, promocija prelaska na održivije vidove transporta i podrška ekološke mobilnosti u urbanim sredinama moguća je kroz sledeće korake:

• Razvoj visokokvalitetne, odgovarajuće i „udobne" infrastrukture za bicikliste, vozače električnih trotineta i pešake (biciklističke staze, pešačke zone i šetališta) radi kreiranja prijatnog, sigurnog i ekološki bezbednog ambijenta, bez aerozagađenja i buke i s tim u vezi promovisanje aktivne mobilnosti i zdravog načina života, sa fokusom na fizičku aktivnost (šetnje i biciklizam u cilju sprečavanja i prevencije bolesti i gojaznosti). Biciklistički saobraćaj i sistem organizovanog iznajmljivanja bicikala (*bike sharing*) tipični su, pre svega, za

Vojvodinu dok se biciklističke staze sporadično grade i u ostalim delovima zemlje, ali se biciklizam više promoviše kao vid rekreacije u prirodi, zbog čega nema značajnog udela u mobilnosti u gradovima (Ministarstvo građevinarstva, saobraćaja i infrastrukture). U cilju oslobađanja centralnih urbanih zona od motornog saobraćaja i integracije saobraćajnih površina treba slediti primer pozitivne prakse modernih gradova Evrope, poput Londona i Milana koji su uvođenjem „urbane zamke” i naplaćivanjem ulaska automobilom u centar grada (kamere kontrolišu poštovanje propisane mere) uspele da značajno smanje saobraćajnu gužvu i broj automobila na ulicama tokom dana.

• Promocija upotrebe gradskog prevoza[3] sa tendencijom ka uvođenju autobusa na alternativni pogon u gradski saobraćaj. Javni prevoz je često brže i jeftinije rešenje od korišćenja automobila, naročito u sredinama u kojima je parking prostor ograničen. Veća upotreba javnog prevoza ima prednosti za životnu sredinu i zajednicu, čime se smanjuju zagađenje, prometna zagušenja, saobraćajni metež i buka. Naravno, neophodno je poboljšati percepciju gradskog prevoza u javnosti i promeniti stereotip po kome je javni prevoz jedina alternativa za prevoz ljudi koji ne mogu sebi da priušte svakodnevno korišćenje putničkih vozila.

• Imajući u vidu da savremeni sistemski pristup razvoja sistema javnog gradskog prevoza pretpostavlja transformaciju koncepta od „sistema za sebe‟ ka „podsistemu sistema grada‟, kao neophodnost se nameće promena dugogodišnje poslovne filozofije JGP i preorijentacija podsistema sa koncepta „kvantiteta usluge‟, ka konceptu „kvalitetnog zadovoljavanja najvećeg broja identifikovanih potreba korisnika sistema‟ (Tica, 2018, p. 18). U tom smislu podsistem javnog gradskog prevoza putnika, prihvatanjem koncepta holističkog marketinga mora da uskladi svoje ciljeve sa ciljevima grada kao hijerarhijski višeg sistema i ispuni neke od krucijalnih zahteva u smislu da: bude komforan i cenovno pristupačan u prostoru i vremenu; da bude dostupan za korišćenje svim građanima, po jednakim i unapred poznatim uslovima; da obezbedi objekte (uređena stajališta) i usluge koji su efikasno ugrađeni u humano orijentisanu urbanu sredinu; da stimuliše željeni urbani razvoj i formu grada; da ima male negativne ekološke propratne efekte i nusprodukte na životni ambijent i nanosi minimalnu ili nultu štetu ekosistemu; da bude adaptivan u smislu stalnog prilagođavanja zahtevima i ciljevima viših sistema i zainteresovanih učesnika u sistemu, radi efikasne

[3] Udeo gradske populacije koja ima pogodan pristup javnom prevozu (definisano da živi na 500 metara hoda od autobuske i na 1.000 metara od železničke i/ili trajektne stanice) i dalje je nizak, posebno u zemljama u razvoju. Na osnovu podataka iz 227 gradova iz 78 zemalja u 2018. godini, u proseku je 53% urbanih stanovnika svih regiona sveta imalo pogodan pristup javnom prevozu, od niskih 18% u subsaharskoj Africi do visokih 75% u Australiji i Novom Zelandu (www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/cities, Sustainable Development Goal 11).

adaptacije i transformacije po principima održive urbane forme i koncepta „zelenog” grada.

• Promocija upotrebe električnih vozila može se posmatrati kao važan aspekt rešavanja pitanja zagađenja i zagušenja gradskih sredina saobraćajem. Po ugledu na ekološki osvešćeni deo sveta državna vlast, ali i lokalne samouprave treba da se angažuju u sferi kreiranja politike razvoja, dodatne odgovarajuće infrastrukture, širenja mreže punjača, subvencionisanja i podsticaja (što nije slučaj), koji će biti u funkciji povećanja upotrebe i ubrzanog širenja korišćenja vozila i autobusa na električni pogon u gradovima širom Srbije. Pritom, ne sme se gubiti iz vida da upotreba električnih automobila ne znači automatsko eliminisanje korišćenja fosilnih goriva s obzirom na činjenicu da će zapravo elektrane na ugalj „nastaviti” da zagađuju vazduh dok proizvode struju za „čista” električna vozila.

• Promocija upotrebe automobila sa manjom potrošnjom goriva (l/100km) i vozila sa niskom emisijom ugljenika (g/km), takozvanih, energetski efikasnih vozila po *carpool/carshare* konceptu, čime bi se direktno smanjio nivo zagađenja u gradu i poboljšao lokalni kvalitet vazduha. Isto tako, povećano korišćenje energetski efikasnih vozila (hibridi, električna vozila i vozila na alternativna goriva: biodizel, etanol, vodonik) donelo bi značajne finansijske benefite za građane i lokalnu ekonomiju, s obzirom da upotreba ovih vozila znači trošenje manje energije, a time i uštedu devastiranih resursa. U mnogim gradovima evropskog kontinenta lokalne samouprave podsticajnim merama podržavaju „zelenija” vozila nudeći korisnicima energetski efikasnih automobila brojne pogodnosti: ukidanje poreza pri kupovini, besplatan parking i putne takse, besplatno punjenje električnih baterija na javnim prostorima i slično.. „Deljenje prevoza”[4] takođe postaje ekološki prihvatljiviji i održiviji način putovanja s obzirom da smanjuje zagađenje vazduha, emisiju ugljenika, zagušenje u saobraćaju i potrebu za parking mestima.

• Stimulisati kupovinu novih putničkih automobila sa posebnim osvrtom na kupovinu automobila koji emituju manju količinu CO_2.

• Obezbediti kontrolisan uvoz polovnih automobila koji bi morao da uključi i strogu kontrolu nivoa tehničke ispravnosti uvezenih vozila koja, u sadašnjim uslovima, bez obzira na spoljašnju očuvanost, najvećim delom predstavljaju automobilski otpad, prvenstveno Evrope. Po ugledu na zemlje regiona, promotivnim aktivnostima ukazivati na pogubni uticaj „zagađivača” na četiri točka na kvalitet vazduha i podržati ideju o zabrani uvoza „polovnjaka” emisione klase ispod Euro 4 standarda.

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[4] Deljenje prevoza” (*carpooling, car-sharing, ride-sharing)* je deljenje putovanja automobilom tako da više osoba putuje automobilom i sprečava potrebu da drugi moraju sami da se voze do željenog mesta.

• U cilju prevencije i očuvanja zdravlja urbane populacije podržati realizaciju projekta monitoringa, odnosno svakodnevnog merenja koncentracije zagađujućih materija u vazduhu i shodno dobijenim rezultatima alarmirati javnost i permanentno promovisati održive modele mobilnosti.

Na osnovu rečenog proizilazi da su, edukacija stanovništva o prednostima nemotorizovanog prevoza, informisanje i organizovanje kampanja za podizanje kolektivne svesti o potrebi održivog ponašanja u sferi urbane mobilnosti i mogućnosti izbora „zelenijih" načina prevoza u gradskim naseljima rešenja, koja, po uzoru na razvijeni deo sveta mogu biti prihvaćena i involvirana u planove urbane mobilnosti lokalnih samouprava. Kreiranju svesti o neophodnosti održive urbane mobilnosti doprinelo bi organizovanje tematskih i niskobudžetnih događaja (konferencije, štampani materijali i brošure), kao i projektovanje uspešnih priča iz gradova širom sveta čiji su stanovnici „ekološkim" i odgovornim ponašanjem doprineli stvaranju nisko-emisionog društva. Na putu izgradnje „zelene" urbane mobilnosti neophodno je promovisanjem ideje o životu u gradu u harmoniji sa prirodom posvetiti posebnu pažnju mlađim generacijama, angažovanjem na organizovanju serija edukativnih predavanja i kreativnih radionica, kako bi se mladi, još u ranom dobu podstakli na razmišljanje o socijalnim i ekološkim aspektima, ali i prednostima korišćenja alternativnih načina mobilnosti u gradskim sredinama. Činjenica da nekolicina gradova samo sporadično obeležava Dan bez automobila koji u sklopu evropske nedelje mobilnosti promoviše viziju gradskih ulica kojima ne dominiraju motorna vozila ukazuje na činjenicu da u našoj zemlji još uvek nije prepoznata neposredna uslovljenost povećanja kvaliteta života u urbanim sredinama i „zelenije" mobilnosti.

Analogno tome, razvoj održive i energetski efikasne urbane mobilnosti svakako treba usmeravati u pravcu podizanja kolektivne svesti o neophodnosti stabilizacije koncentracije gasova sa efektom staklene bašte i prevencije negativnih antropogenih uticaja na devastiran i u značajnoj meri ugrožen i narušen ekosistem. Naravno, na putu supstitucije tradicionalno ukorenjenih načina razmišljanja, navika i ponašanja u gradovima i urbanim naseljima i kreiranja dugoročne „zelenije" urbane mobilnosti uloga koncepta održivog marketinga postaje neprocenjivo značajna.

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SUSTAINABLE MARKETING IN THE FUNCTION OF SUSTAINABLE URBAN MOBILITY

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Abstract

As the survival and destiny of mankind are originally and inextricably conditioned by the state of the natural environment, it has become clear over time that man's relationship to the environment and economic growth and development "at all costs" were no longer possible or acceptable, and that man is, in fact, part of the ecosystem beyond whose legality will not be able to go unpunished. Faced with problems that, as a by-product of modernization, have for decades devastated and violated the quality of life in urban environments, the environmentally conscious global community has been pushing for the creation of sustainable cities and "greener" urban mobility. Hence the author's intention to emphasize the importance of accepting the concept of sustainable marketing in order to, by raising the collective awareness of the importance of transition to a low-emission society, encourage the substitution of urban mobility habits and behaviour that are in contrast the idea of sustainable urban form and the vision of a "green" city. The research is based on the use of secondary data, analysis of the content of available professional literature and relevant reports of the United Nations and national institutions, as well as on the application of descriptive methods and methods of analysis and synthesis. The article concludes by offering a framework for the implementation of sustainable marketing and measures that can be taken in the field of creating sustainable urban mobility.

Key words: *urbanization, urban mobility, sustainable development, urban settlements, sustainable marketing*

Introduction

The modern world, already largely faced with the awareness that the Earth must be preserved for both the present and future generations of people, views sustainable development in accordance with the definition of the World Commission for Development and Environmental Protection as "development that meets the needs of the present so not to jeopardize the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" and accepts the view that sustainable development is "essentially a process of change within which resource exploitation, investment direction, technological

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development orientation and institutional change are in harmony and enable use of current and future potentials, so that human needs and aspirations would be met "(VCED, 1987). In this regard, the obligation of today's generation to leave offspring at least as many chances for development as it has, stemmed from the fundamental principles of intragenerational and intergenerational equality, because the fact that the current generation has the right to exploit resource potential and a healthy environment, it also an obligation for generations to come. From this perspective, sustainable development conditioned by the need to respect the capacity of nature to provide the resources and services needed for life actually implies improving the quality of human life within the capacity (capacity) of the supporting ecosystem (IUCN, UNEP, WWF-I, 1991).

Anthropocentric (homocentric) understanding of the relationship between man and Nature created the idea of good and generous Nature, which as an inexhaustible resource submissively serves to satisfy man’s insatiable needs. With the benefits of civilization initiated by industrialization and the unprecedented progress of new technologies, the problems of endangering and preserving the human environment grew. Rapid population growth at the global level, accompanied by intensive technical and technological processes, has resulted in growing needs for non-renewable energy, raw materials and other natural resources, especially in countries with the highest population growth rates, i.e. in rapidly developing countries (Munitlak Ivanović, et al., 2017). “Throughout the entire 20th century, economic development has accumulated problems in the environment that cities have not escaped. The dynamics of urban development, the emergence of large agglomerations and the danger of increased levels of air pollution in cities and their surroundings are determined by the absolute increase in population on the planet and increasing the share of urban population. As living organisms, cities have developed, progressed and spatially and socio-economically transformed under the influence of the behavior and actions of all individuals who form an integral part of the urban community.” Urban development took place in parallel with the “conquest” of fertile agricultural land, modification of its primary purpose, destruction of natural habitat and endangering sensitive ecosystems. “It is quite clear that man, his activities and habits that are shaped by the benefits of modern civilization and the modernization of all aspects of everyday life are actually the main cause and neuralgic point of increasingly endangered cities” (Vujović, Vujović, 2017).

It is therefore not surprising that the anthropogenic factor in the description of human negligence towards the environment is increasingly cited as a generator of long-term dramatic degradation and devastation of Nature and the devastation of available resources. In this regard, understanding the key current urban trends, but also those that are likely to take place in the coming years, is crucial for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda, as inclusive, safe, adaptable and sustainable cities and settlements have become one of the seventeen global goals of Sustainable Development Goals stemming from the eight Millennium Development Goals for one World. Especially since urbanization is very often, in addition to population size and age structure of the population, cited as a demographic variable that is classified as a significant determinant of harmful gas emissions (Petrović, et al., 2018). The use of motor vehicles is particularly intensive in urban areas, so it is assumed that with the acceleration of the urbanization process, emissions of CO2 and other harmful gases in urban areas increase. Given that the positive impact of urbanization on greenhouse gas emissions has been confirmed as significant in numerous empirical studies (Poumanyvong, Kaneko, 2010; York, 2007; Cole, Neumayer, 2004), the idea is to show spatial and demographic changes in the direction of accelerated process of urbanization and increasing the use of motor vehicles indicates the urgency of changing the pattern of behavior and the transformation of established habits in terms of urban mobility. Given the high growth rates of urban settlements and the growing share of urban in the total population of the world, but also due to the fact that today, almost half of the world's population lives in settlements with city status, the issue of sustainable urban mobility is a priority.

From marketing to sustainable marketing concept

Decades ago, marketing was criticized for (allegedly) directly encouraging excessive consumption and further development of a highly consumerist (unsustainable) society. "Marketing is to blame for creating false needs, encouraging greed and even encouraging communities to over-spend and materialize. Also, to strive to promote excessive interest in ownership - people are judged by what they have, not by who they are" (Seretny, Seretny, 2012).

Evolving over time, marketing has significantly impacted environmental awareness at the national, regional and planetary levels. Today, the „greener" future we are striving for is becoming more and more certain, thanks to the concept of sustainable marketing. "Since the beginning of the twentieth century and most intensively over the last sixty years, marketing has evolved - from product-based marketing (1.0) to customer-centric marketing (2.0) to human-focused marketing (3.0)" (Kotler, Kartajaya, & Setiawan, 2017). Today we are witnessing the emergence of a new era, defined as Marketing 3.0, an era based on value, in which people are no longer perceived as a target consumer market based on demographic factors, but as quite thoughtful and intelligent partners with emotions, feelings and specific spiritual values (Kotler et al., 2010).

Ecological marketing, which was primarily aimed at challenging products and technological processes that have or may have a negative and harmful impact on the environment, evolved into green marketing, which, in order to enable a comparative existence of economic and natural system in the long run has initially related to popularization of “Green” products and encouraging their purchase. However, green marketing continues to follow an economic paradigm that focuses on the traditional process of economic exchange and profit as the ultimate goal (Jamrozy, 2007). Moreover, green marketing strategies focus on green consumers, who are happy to pay higher prices for environmentally friendly products.

By awakening the responsibility towards the Planet, but also the army of loyal and potential consumers, there are changes in the direction of supporting the development of products that are designed to minimize negative effects on the physical environment while improving and enhancing the existing level of quality. The modern concept of sustainable marketing contributes even more intensively to environmental awareness by insisting on creating, producing and delivering sustainable solutions that are in the function of continuously striking a balance between society's goals (environmental protection), consumers (needs) and companies (profits) (Sudarević, Milovanov, 2015). Thus, sustainable marketing suggests the need to create sustainable models of growth and development based on meeting three crucial criteria: meeting the needs of consumers and society as a whole, achieving organizational goals, respecting and emphasizing compliance with ecosystem’s needs (Fuller, 1999).

Sustainable marketing should therefore be viewed as part of marketing that is an accompanying element of sustainable economic development. In this regard, within the framework of sustainable development, marketing has gone through three phases. The first phase: environmental marketing focused on environmental issues, such as air and water pollution, depletion of natural resources and the impact of fertilizers and pesticides used in agriculture. The second phase dates back to the 1980s: environmental marketing, focused on the development of modern, environmentally friendly „clean” technologies. The “green segment of customers” was at the center of marketing activities, because responsible action was recognized as a competitive advantage. The third phase is the current era of sustainable marketing aimed at responsible economic and social development (Hunt, 2011).

For this reason, the concept of sustainable marketing has an important role in achieving globally agreed goals of sustainable development primarily oriented towards achieving economic prosperity and social well-being while protecting the environment, as well as the idea of sustainable „greener” mobility in cities. The aim of the research is aimed at emphasizing the role that the concept of sustainable marketing can play in the process of creating sustainable urban mobility.

Spatial-demographic changes and the process of accelerated urbanization on a global and national level

Until the late eighteenth century, urbanization was not a significant phenomenon for the world (Milutinović, 2004). At the beginning of the 19th century, only 3% of the world's population lived in urban settlements. Over the centuries, that number has almost increased fivefold, so that at the beginning of the 20th century, 14% of the planet's population lived in settlements that had the status of a city (Miličić, 2004). The world population has been going through the process of accelerated urbanization, especially since 1950s when 733.7 million of the world's 2,516.5 million inhabitants lived in cities, i.e. more than two thirds (70%) of the world's population lived in rural areas. At the beginning of the new millennium, the world faced an unexpected urban growth, and the result is that almost half of the world's population lives in settlements with the status of a city. According to the United Nations in 2000, the city's population reached 3,197.6 million, which is almost 700 million more than the world's population in 1950 (United Nations, 2003). In 2007, for the first time in history, the world's urban population exceeded the global rural population, and since then the urban population has continued to grow faster than the rural population. During the second decade of the new millennium, the planetary trend of increasing urban population has created a new reality of the modern world: more than half of the planet currently lives in cities. Namely, out of the total number of the world's population, today more than 55% of people (4.2 billion) live in urban areas, with a tendency to grow in the next thirty years. For the first time in history of human development in 2018, the number of inhabitants in rural settlements fell to less than 50% in relation to the population of urban settlements (3.4 billion). Based on available data, it is evident that in 70 years, the world's urban population has more than quadrupled, from approximately 0.8 billion in 1950 to 4.2 billion in 2018. The explosive growth of the world's urban population is illustrated by the data in Table 1.

Table 1. Total, urban and rural population by development groups and selected years in the period from 1950 to 2050

	Population (in billions)					
Development groups	1950.	1970.	1990.	2018.	2030.	2050.
Total population						
World	2.54	3.70	5.33	7.63	8.55	9.77
Developed regions	0.81	1.01	1.15	1.26	1.29	1.30
Less developed regions	1.72	2.69	4.18	6.37	7.26	8.47
City population						
World	0.75	1.35	2.29	4.22	5.17	6.68
Developed regions	0.45	0.67	0.83	0.99	1.05	1.12
Less developed regions	0.30	0.68	1.46	3.23	4.12	5.56
Rural population						

World	1.79	2.35	3.04	3.41	3.38	3.09
Developed regions	0.37	0.33	0.32	0.27	0.24	0.17
Less developed regions	1.42	2.01	2.72	3.14	3.14	2.92

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Population Division, World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision, New York, 2019.

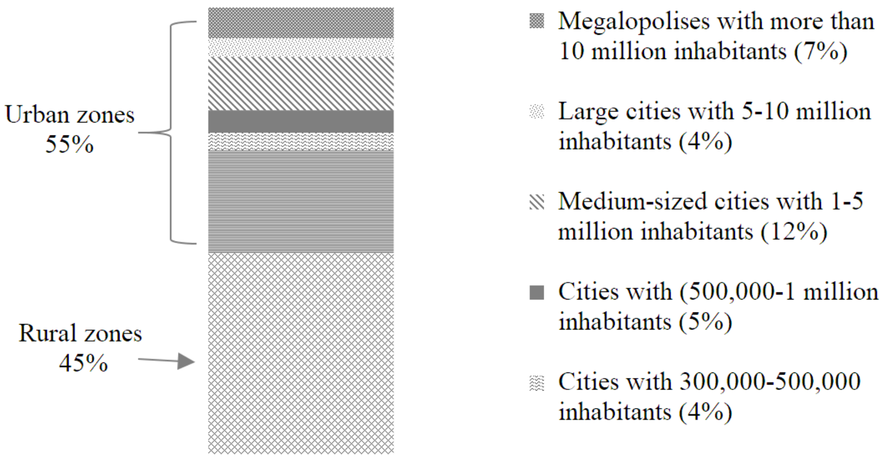
If the latest long-term projections of the United Nations prove to be true, it can be expected that in the coming period, in fact, the entire growth of the world's population will be determined by the increase in the number of inhabitants in urban areas. That is, in the period between 2018-2050. The population of cities is expected to grow by 2.5 billion from 4.2 billion to 6.7 billion, while the world's population is projected to increase slightly over the next 30 years, by 2.1 billion, from 7.6 billion billion in 2018 to 9.8 billion in 2050. Significant growth of urban population, as in previous years will be driven by several factors, of which the following are crucial: natural increase, rural-urban migration and geographical expansion of urban settlements through the annexation and transformation of rural localities in urban settlements (United Nations, 2019).

At the global level, there are striking differences in patterns of urbanization between more developed and less developed regions. While currently just under half of the population of less developed regions live in rural areas, the vast majority in developed parts of the world live in urban areas. However, the urban population of less developed regions is growing much faster than in developed regions, and as a result of modern trends, its share of the world's urban population is growing. In 1950, the urban population of more developed regions was significantly more numerous than the population of less developed regions (446 million versus 305 million), so that more developed regions had 59% of the world's urban population. Since the fifties of the last century, the patterns of urban population growth in developed and less developed regions have shown signs of divergence, with a tendency to slow down the growth of the urban population in the more developed part of the world. As a result, by 1970 the urban population of the less developed regions had outnumbered the urban population of the more developed regions (680 million versus 674 million), and the gap had increased sharply over the decades that followed. According to the United Nations report in 2018, three times more people lived in cities in less developed regions (3.2 billion versus 1.0 billion in urban areas of developed countries), so that cities in less developed regions accounted for 76% of the world's urban population and 84% of the total population of the world (United Nations, 2019).

Rapid urban growth that characterizes almost all geographical regions of the world has led to a large increase in the number of urban residents. Urban population of Africa increased sixteen times between 1950 and 2018, increasing from 33 to 548 million. The urban population of Asia increased ninefold, from 246 million to approximately 2.3 billion, while the population of Latin America and the Caribbean increased sevenfold, from 70 million to 526 million. The population of cities in North America has more than doubled (from 110 million to 299 million), while in Oceania it has tripled (from 8 to 28 million). Even Europe's urban population, whose growth rates are relatively low, almost doubled during the same period, from 284 to 553 million (United Nations, 2019). Despite a relatively low level of urbanization (around 50%), Asia, as the most populous continent, has the largest population living in urban areas (2.3 billion in 2018), followed by Europe, with a population of 553 million in urban areas, then Africa with 548 million (mostly rural, with 43% of the population in urban areas) and Latin America and the Caribbean with 526 million inhabitants living in urban areas.

Bearing in mind that the transition from rural to urban areas has been occuring since the time of the First Industrial Revolution, the group of large urban agglomerations has grown in population, expanding the network of metropolises around the world. Namely, during the last two centuries, another great change has taken place in the distribution of the world's population: an increasing and now unsurpassed concentration of people in highly urbanized areas, known as urban agglomerations. The largest of these agglomerations at the top of the urban hierarchy are those with 10 or more million inhabitants, the so-called megalopolises. Thirty-three megalopolises in Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America and North America make up 7% of the total world population in 2018 (Chart 1). The next group consists of large cities with 5 to 10 million inhabitants, which concentrates another 4% of the world's population. Other categories of the urban hierarchy are defined as medium-sized cities with 1 to 5 million, cities with 500,000 to 1 million, cities with 300,000 to 500,000 and urban settlements with less than 300,000 inhabitants, which in 2018 participated in the total world population with 12, 5, 4 and 23%, respectively (United Nations, 2019).

Graph 1. World population by population zones and by size of urban settlements, 2018



Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Population Division, World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision, New York, 2019.

The following data also speak of the accelerated growth of urban agglomerations. In 1990, there were 10 cities with more than 10 million inhabitants and 153 million people, which represented less than 7% of the total urban population. In 2018, 33 so-called megalopolises, i.e. urban agglomerations with 10 or more million inhabitants, were located in 20 countries. Taken together, megalopolises are home to 529 million people, which is approximately one-eighth of the world's urban population. Tokyo is the largest city in the world with an agglomeration of just over 37 million inhabitants, followed by Delhi with 29 million, Shanghai with approximately 26, Sao Paulo (Brazil) and Mexico City with close to 22 and Cairo with 20 million inhabitants. The remaining top 10 mega-cities include Mumbai, Beijing, Dhaka (Bangladesh) and Osaka with just over 19 and New York with almost 19 million inhabitants, which shows that 6 of the world's 10 largest metropolises are located on the Asian continent (United Nations, 2019).

Given the high growth rates of urban settlements and the growing share of urban in the total world population, it is necessary to point out important facts. According to the United Nations, world cities occupy only 3% of the Earth's surface, but urban activities account for 60-80% of energy consumption and generate 75% of total carbon dioxide emissions as well as significant amounts of other harmful gases and pollutants. Since 2016, 90% of urban residents have been constantly exposed to the harmful effects of suspended airborne particles, resulting in 4.2 million deaths due to increased concentrations of air pollution (www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/cities). More than half of the world's urban population has been exposed to levels of air pollution at least 2.5 times higher than safety standards (www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/cities).

Similar to most countries in Southeast Europe, the process of intensive urbanization in the Republic of Serbia began only in the second half of the twentieth century. Until the sixties of the last century, Serbia had an exclusively agricultural character in terms of economic structure, while in terms of population structure it was a rural area. In the years after the Second World War, significant spatial and demographic changes were noticed, initiated by a strong process of primary urbanization and deagrarization of the population, in fact, intensive migration flows on the rural-urban route. By 1953, the urban population accounted for just over one-fifth of the total population (22.5%), while at the same time about two-thirds of the active population was employed in agriculture (67%). After almost half a century (2011), 59.44% (4,271,872) of the total population lived in urban settlements in Serbia, and 11.8% of employees were in the primary sector (Ministry of Construction, Transport and Infrastructure of the Republic of Serbia). Understandably, the slowdown in the process of accelerated urbanization in our region will begin only with the “emptying” of traditional demographic “reservoirs”, primarily rural areas.

The process of „outflow” of population in the direction of economically developed environments resulted in the creation of zones of demographic expansion and high concentration of population and zones of constant depopulation, i.e. increasingly pronounced spatial-demographic polarization. Comparative analysis shows that these two zones have diametrically opposed basic spatial-demographic characteristics. “Zones of demographic expansion are mainly determined by relatively small spatial coverage, high degree of agglomeration of population and activities, high level of general population and relatively favorable relevant demographic structures, and as a rule they represent immigration-attractive highly urbanized areas. In contrast, depopulation zones are demographically exodus, territorially large and relatively sparsely populated areas, predominantly rural, with a constantly declining population, where virtually all negative effects (aging process, constant decline in birth rates and rising overall mortality rates) of demographic transition are most pronounced” (Stojanović, Vojković, 2005). Thus, periurban rings were formed - gravitational areas that gravitate around stronger functional centers, among which the most pronounced ara the metropolitan Belgrade area, Novi Sad functional-urban agglomeration, as well as periurban areas around Nis and Kragujevac (Ministry of Construction, Transport and Infrastructure of the Republic of Serbia).

The phenomenon of forced migration is characteristic for Serbia, which has significantly influenced the trends of urbanization. As can be concluded, the mechanical component (internal migration) has played a dominant role in the structure of demographic growth of Serbian cities for decades, while the impact of the biological component in the form of natural increase (due to slowing down of biological renewal) is significantly smaller. For that reason, it is not wrong to say that population migrations are the most important determinant of changes in the spatial distribution of the population of the Republic of Serbia. That the global tendencies of the population boom in urban areas are present in our country is confirmed by the data of the last census, based on which almost 60% of the total population lives in urban settlements, which make up 3.6% of the total number of settlements in Serbia (excluding Kosovo and Metohija) (Republic of Serbia Statistical Office, 2014). The reverse and products of depopulation and demographic depopulation of villages are reflected in the creation of congested, noisy and overcrowded cities which, very often as typically artificial environments, are opposed to Nature and alienated from it.

Motor vehicles on the roads of the world, Europe and the Republic of Serbia

The negative effect of internal combustion engines on the environment, and thus cars that run on traditional fuels, in addition to the uncontrolled depletion of the Earth's natural resources, which are not renewable, is reflected on air pollution. The impact of exhaust gases on air pollution in cities and their surroundings is significant, and since the total number of motor vehicles at the global level is rapidly growing, „greening" of cities is one of the priorities of the third millennium on the path of sustainable development.

Today, cars are one of the most widespread means of overcoming physical distances. The number of cars, buses and trucks is increasing every day. Already in mid-2010, for the first time, more than a billion cars were registered worldwide. At the beginning of 2019, there were about a quarter of a billion more. With emerging and fast-growing economies, such as China or India, and the resulting improvement in the living standards of the local population, an increasing number of people will be able to afford a „pet" on four wheels. And due to the fact that these are countries with a huge population, the growth of the number of cars on a global level is likely to continue and increase even more. With 3.1 cars produced in one second, the world produces about 100 million new cars a year, and that number will certainly increase significantly in the coming decades, due to the expected explosive population boom and the development of technological achievements. Estimates say that by 2035, over 1.8 billion cars will be in use worldwide (www.live-counter.com/number-of-cars).

Although global sales of cars and light commercial vehicles decreased by 0.5% in 2018, about 86 million vehicles were sold in the world's 54 largest markets. Electric car sales reached a record high, with 1.26 million passenger electric cars sold during the year, an increase of a whopping 74%. It was one of the largest increases among all car categories on the global market, which can be explained by the influence of several factors. First, Chinese demand for electric vehicles increased during the year, as this type of car gained greater visibility among consumers, in part due to the fact that local authorities promoted their environmental impact. Second, the Tesla Model 3 became the best-selling electric car brand in the world, as it was boosted by sales in North America, where it first became available. Finally, the diesel crisis in Europe has also contributed to raising consumer awareness of the benefits of driving electric cars (www.best-selling-cars.com/global).

The vehicle fleet of European Union passenger cars has increased by 5.7% over the last five years, so the number of vehicles on the roads of the European continent has increased from 243 to 257 million. Despite the increase in the number of registrations of passenger cars with alternative propulsion in recent years, cars that do not use traditional fuels make up only 3.4% of the total EU vehicle fleet. Cars in the European Union are on average 10.5 years old. The average age of cars varies drastically from country to country depending on whether they belong to the rich west or the poorer east. Lithuania and Romania have the oldest fleets, with vehicles older than 16, while the „youngest" cars are driven on the roads of Luxembourg (average age 6.3 years) and the United Kingdom (7.8 years). Interestingly, in Hungary almost half of all households (48.3%) do not have a car, and in Denmark almost 40%. In contrast, more than 30% of French families own two cars (www.acea.be/statistics/article).

Number of road motor vehicles registered during 2018 in the Republic of Serbia is slightly increasing compared to the number of registered vehicles in the previous year. When it comes to our country, the number of total registered road motor vehicles and trailers in 2018 was at the level of almost 2,472,748 million, of which 1,999,771 are passenger cars, and only in the city of Belgrade, 568,308 were registered, which is more than the number in the entire region of Šumadija and Western Serbia (527,623) (Republic of Serbia Statistical Office, 2019). When it comes to vehicles that do not use conventional fuels, the number of registered cars is still very low. There are a modest 173 electric vehicles on the roads of our country, as well as 255 hybrid vehicles, and the average age of cars driven in Serbia is estimated at 17 years. Given the current regulations, which still allow the import of „adult" vehicles, it is not surprising that our roads are dominated by vehicles from the last decade and that the number of vehicles from the last century is far above those with engines of the last two introduced emission classes (Euro 5 and Euro 6 standard). The fact that with the increase in the number of vehicles, especially those that "expel" developed European countries from their roads, pollution is growing, and that "pollutants" on four wheels greatly devastate air quality in urban areas indicates the urgency of protective measures to the ecological damage was prevented, which was announced and found ways to replace established habits and behavior in urban areas. Especially since the measurement of the concentration of pollutants, observed in urban settlements, shows that only a third of the population has good quality air, while two thirds have air whose quality needs to be improved (Strategy for Sustainable Urban Development of the Republic of Serbia until 2030).

“As the number of low-carbon vehicles (g / km) on Serbian roads is negligible, special attention needs to be paid to the promotion of „green” urban mobility and the creation of sustainable cities that offer the desired quality of living and working environment both now and in the future. In this regard, it is of multiple importance that as much as possible of the urban population know that local air pollution mainly has regional and global implications” (Vujović, Vujović, 2017).

Concluding remarks: how to achieve sustainable urban mobility

Through development strategies for compact cities, which are becoming the ideal of sustainable urban form, European countries are promoting planned limitation of spatial expansion of cities, but also greater energy efficiency and less impact on pollution, primarily due to mixed spatial use and higher population density, which requires shorter trips from housing to work and other activities and the use of sustainable modes of transport. At the same time, the acceptance of the concept of sustainable marketing and the application of the techniques available to it are in the function of creating “greener” urban mobility and finding ways to substitute established habits and behavior of residents in urban areas. In the process of preparation, adoption and implementation of sustainable urban mobility plans envisaged by the Strategy of Sustainable Urban Development of the Republic of Serbia until 2030, promotion of the transition to more sustainable modes of transport and support of ecological mobility in urban areas is possible through the following steps:

• Development of high quality, appropriate and „comfortable” infrastructure for cyclists, electric scooter riders and pedestrians (bicycle paths, pedestrian zones and promenades) in order to create a pleasant, safe and environmentally friendly environment, free of air pollution and noise and thus promote active mobility and healthy life, with a focus on physical activity (walking and cycling to prevent and prevent disease and obesity). Bicycle traffic and the system of organized bicycle rental are typical, primarily for Vojvodina, while bicycle paths are sporadically built in other parts of the country, but cycling is more promoted as a form of recreation in nature, which is why there is no significant share of urban mobility. (Ministry of Construction, Transport and

Infrastructure). In order to free central urban areas from motor traffic and integration of traffic areas, we should follow the example of positive practices of modern European cities, such as London and Milan, which have significantly reduce traffic congestion and the number of cars on the streets during the day.

• Promoting the use of public transport[7] with a tendency towards the introduction of alternative buses in city traffic. Public transport is often a faster and cheaper solution than using a car, especially in environments where parking space is limited. Greater use of public transport has benefits for the environment and the community, thus reducing pollution, traffic congestion, traffic congestion and noise. Of course, it is necessary to improve the perception of public transport in public and change the stereotype that public transport is the only alternative for transporting people who cannot afford the daily use of passenger vehicles.

• Bearing in mind that the modern systemic approach to the development of public urban transport system presupposes the transformation of the concept from „system for itself" to "subsystem of the city system", it is necessary to change the long-standing business philosophy of PPP and reorient the subsystem from the concept of quality satisfaction of the largest number of identified needs of system users" (Tica, 2018). In that sense, the subsystem of public urban passenger transport, by accepting the concept of holistic marketing, must harmonize its goals with the goals of the city as a hierarchically higher system and meet some of the crucial requirements in terms of: being comfortable and affordable in space and time; to be available for use by all citizens, under equal and pre-known conditions; to provide facilities (arranged stops) and services that are efficiently integrated into the humanely oriented urban environment; to stimulate the desired urban development and form of the city; to have small negative ecological side effects and by-products on the living environment and cause minimal or zero damage to the ecosystem; to be adaptable in terms of constant adaptation to the requirements and goals of higher systems and interested participants in the system, for efficient adaptation and transformation according to the principles of sustainable urban form and the concept of "green" city.

[7] The share of urban population that has convenient access to public transport (defined as living 500 meters from the bus and 1,000 meters from the train and/or ferry station) remains low, especially in developing countries. Based on data from 227 cities in 78 countries in 2018, on average 53% of urban residents in all regions of the world had convenient access to public transport, from a low 18% in sub-Saharan Africa to a high 75% in Australia and New Zealand (www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/cities, Sustainable Development Goal 11).

• The promotion of the use of electric vehicles can be seen as an important aspect of solving the issue of pollution and congestion of urban areas with traffic. Following the example of an environmentally conscious part of the world, state government and local governments should be engaged in creating development policy, additional appropriate infrastructure, expanding the network of chargers, subsidies and incentives (which is not the case), which will increase use and accelerate expanding the use of electric vehicles and buses in cities across Serbia. At the same time, we must not lose sight of the fact that the use of electric cars does not automatically eliminate the use of fossil fuels, given the fact that coal-fired power plants will "continue" to pollute the air while producing electricity for "clean" electric vehicles.

• Promotion of the use of cars with lower fuel consumption (l / 100km) and low-carbon vehicles (g / km), so-called, energy efficient vehicles according to the carpool / carshare concept, which would directly reduce the level of pollution in the city and improve local air quality. Also, increased use of energy efficient vehicles (hybrids, electric vehicles and vehicles running on alternative fuels: biodiesel, ethanol, hydrogen) would bring significant financial benefits to citizens and the local economy, as the use of these vehicles means consuming less energy and thus less energy. saving devastated resources. In many cities on the European continent, local governments support "green" vehicles by encouraging energy-efficient vehicles, offering numerous benefits to users of energy-efficient cars: abolishing taxes on purchases, free parking and tolls, free charging of electric batteries in public areas, etc... a more environmentally friendly and sustainable way of traveling as it reduces air pollution, carbon emissions, traffic congestion and the need for parking spaces.

• Stimulate the purchase of new passenger cars with special emphasis on the purchase of cars that emit less CO2.

• Provide controlled import of used cars, which should include strict control of the level of technical correctness of imported vehicles, which, in the current conditions, regardless of external preservation, mostly represent automotive waste, primarily from Europe. Following the example of the countries in the region, promotional activities should point out the detrimental impact of "pollutants" on four points on air quality and support the idea of banning the import of "used" emission class below the Euro 4 standard.

• In order to prevent and preserve the health of the urban population, support the implementation of the monitoring project, ie daily measurement of the concentration of pollutants in the air and, in accordance with the obtained results, alert the public and permanently promote sustainable mobility models.

Based on the above, it follows that educating the population about the benefits of non-motorized transport, informing and organizing campaigns to raise collective awareness of the need for sustainable behavior in urban mobility and the possibility of choosing "greener" modes of transport in urban areas solutions. the world can be accepted and involved in urban mobility plans of local governments. Organizing thematic and low-budget events (conferences, printed materials and brochures), as well as projecting success stories from cities around the world whose "environmental" and responsible behavior contributed to the creation of a low-emission society, would contribute to creating awareness of the need for sustainable urban mobility. On the way to building "green" urban mobility, it is necessary to pay special attention to younger generations by promoting the idea of life in the city in harmony with nature, engaging in organizing a series of educational lectures and creative workshops to encourage young people to think about social and environmental aspects, but also the benefits of using alternative modes of mobility in urban areas. The fact that several cities only sporadically mark Car Free Day, which promotes the vision of non-motorized city streets as part of European Mobility Week, points to the fact that our country has not yet recognized the immediate condition of increasing quality of life in urban areas and "greener" mobility.

Analogously, the development of sustainable and energy efficient urban mobility should certainly be directed towards raising collective awareness of the need to stabilize the concentration of greenhouse gases and prevent negative anthropogenic impacts on the devastated and significantly endangered and disturbed ecosystem. Of course, on the path of substituting traditionally rooted ways of thinking, habits and behavior in cities and urban settlements and creating long-term "greener" urban mobility, the role of the concept of sustainable marketing becomes invaluable.

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Tabela 5. Troškovi distribucije dobara iz Subotice u maloprodajne objekte

Indikatori	Period			Ukupno
	Mesec 1	Mesec 2	Mesec 3	
Pređena razdaljina (km)	12.926	11.295	13.208	37.429
Korišćeno gorivo (litar)	3.231	2.823	3.302	9.356
Vrednost korišćenog goriva (RSD)	242.378	211.790	247.653	701.821
Ukupno provedeno vreme u vožnji (sati)	314	266	417	997
Vrednost ukupno provedenog vremena u vožnji (RSD)	47.048	39.890	62.570	149.508
Broj vožnji	98	77	102	277
Ukupna vrednost (RSD)	0	0	0	0
Broj prevеženih paleti (komad)	1.179	976	1358	3.513
Ukupna prevežena količina (kg)	602.600	429.225	711.116	1.742.941
Suma (RSD)	974.222	870.864	1.100.813	2.945.899

Izvor*:* Nikolić, 2010;

Napomena: Vrednosti u tabeli ne sadrže porez na dodatu vrednost (PDV)

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Literatura

1. Nikolić N., M. Marković, i P. Petrović. 2016. Poreski bilans. Oditor 2, (1): 13-17.

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***Nik Holmes*[4]*, John Peters*[5]**

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Table 5. The distribution cost

Indicators	Period			Total
	2013	2014	2015	
Fixed costs	12.926	11.295	13.208	37.429
Variable costs	3.231	2.823	3.302	9.356

Source: Nikolic, 2016;

Graphs, diagrams, schemes and pictures should be entered within the text of article (do not use option Float over text) and numerated according to order of their appearance. Their titles have to be positioned immediately above the graph, diagram, scheme or picture to which they relate. Please, have in mind that all titles, sources and notes have to be written by identical style which was used for tables formatting. During the article writing please mark in the main text all calls to a certain graph, diagram, scheme or picture (*Graph 2.*). All graphs, diagrams, schemes and pictures within the paper have to fit the specified format of the page, as well as they have been centrally positioned.

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Literature

1. Vall J. 2014. Accounting theory. Valid, New York.
2. Parks D., W. Robberts. 2016. Macroeconomic indicators. Finance 23, (4): 462-476.