Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences (IIASS)

Editor: M.Sci. Andrej Kovacic

Editorial board:
Ph.D. Daniel Klimovský - Technical university of Košice
Ph.D. Viera Žúborová - University of St. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava
Ph.D. Michaela Batorova - University of Tampere
Ph.D. Jaroslav Mihalik - University of St. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava
Simon Delakorda - Institute for Electronic Participation
Ph.D. Diana CameliaIancu - National School of Politics and Public Administration Bucharest
Ph.D. Katarzyna Radzik Maruszak - University of Marie Curie Sklodowska Lublin
Ph.D. Sandra Jednak - University of Belgrade
Ph.D. Karl Koth - University of Manitoba
Ph.D. Jose M. Magone - Berlin School of Economics
Ph.D. Aleksandar Marković - University of Belgrade
Warren Master - The Public Manager
M.Sci. Aleksandra Tabaj - University Rehabilitation Institute - Republic of Slovenia
Ph.D. Uroš Pinterič - CK-ZKS Research centre
Ph.D. Piotr Sitniewski - Bialystok School of Public Administration
Ph.D. Ksenija Šabec - University of Ljubljana
Ph.D. Inga Vinogradnaite - Vilnius University
Ph.D. Lasha Tchantouridze - University of Manitoba
Assistant Editor: Karin Wittig Bates

Language editor: Marjeta Zupan

Typeset
This journal was typeset in 11 pt. Arial, Italic, Bold, and Bold Italic; The headlines were typeset in 14 pt. Arial, Bold

Abstracting and Indexing services

Publication Data:
SIdip – Slovenian Association for Innovative Political Science
(Slovensko društvo za inovativno politologijo)

Innovative issues and approaches in social sciences, 2012, vol. 5, no. 1
ISSN 1855-0541

Additional information available on: www.iiass.com
HOW IS THIS PUBLICATION EXPANDING ITS REACH?

By joining the leader in scholarly, authoritative content. This and other titles are available from ProQuest via subscription-based electronic research databases.

ProQuest offers a wide range of powerful research tools to help you find, get, and use information quickly. For a complete list of ProQuest products, go to www.proquest.com or visit your local library.
Contents

ETHNIC MINORITIES AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF POST-YUGOSLAV COUNTRIES

Marina Tavčar Krajnc, Sergej Flere, Andrej Kirbiš

6-23

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE REASONABLE ACCOMODATION CONCEPT FOR PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES IN EMPLOYMENT AND REHABILITATION

Aleksandra Tabaj

24-37

ANALYSIS OF THE SATISFACTION OF THE ELDER CARE HOME RESIDENTS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR THE QUALITY IMPROVEMENTS OF ELDER CARE HOME SERVICE DELIVERY

Suzana Bračič, Majda Pšunder

38-50

QUALITY OF PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE CIVIL SERVICE OF MACEDONIA: WHAT ROLE FOR THE CODE OF ETHICS?

Agim Selami

51-57
GLOBALIZATION INFLUENCES STRATEGIC CHANGES AND MOVEMENTS

Dragan Kesič

58-69

SECURITY CULTURE IMPACT ON SECURITY EXCELLENCE IN A COMPANY

Milan Ambrož

70-87

UNDERSTANDING INTERNET USE AMONG PASSIVE AND ACTIVE TOURISTS. IS THERE A NEED FOR A DIFFERENT WEB APPROACH?

Nataša Slak Valek, Eva Podovšovnik Axelsson

88-106
ETHNIC MINORITIES AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF POST-YUGOSLAV COUNTRIES

Marina Tavčar Krajnc¹, Sergej Flere², Andrej Kirbiš³

Abstract
Understanding patterns of political participation of ethnic minorities is crucial for their integration within postcommunist European countries most of which are ethnically complex and with histories of conflicts. Past research on the relationship between political participation and ethnicity in the democracies has given mixed results and there seems to be a research gap in the literature regarding the patterns of political participation of minorities in postcommunist states. The present study examined differences on two measures of political participation in a representative sample of post-Yugoslav citizens. Employed data source was the South-East European Social Survey Project (SEESSP), fielded in 2003 and 2004. The SEESSP covered six former Yugoslav entities (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, FYR Macedonia, Kosovo, Montenegro, and Serbia). Results indicated that ethnic minorities had lower levels of electoral participation in four out of six analysed political entities, and had lower levels of party membership in three countries. In addition, a significant voter turnout gap existed among different minorities within individual countries. Finally, no major differences in motives behind political participation were found when comparing the association between authoritarian attitudes and political participation within majority and minority groups. Implications of the results are discussed.

Keywords: political participation, ethnic minorities, Post-Yugoslav societies, democratization, cross-national studies.

¹ Marina Tavčar Krajnc, Ph.D., is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Sociology, Faculty of Arts, University of Maribor, Slovenia (marina.tavcar (at) uni-mb.si)

² Sergej Flere, Ph.D., is a Professor at the Department of Sociology, Faculty of Arts, University of Maribor, Slovenia; and the president of Center for the Study of post-Yugoslav societies CEPYUS (sergej.flere (at) uni-mb.si)

³ Andrej Kirbiš, Ph.D., is an Assistant at the Department of Sociology, Faculty of Arts, University of Maribor, Slovenia (andrej.kirbis (at) uni-mb.si)
Introduction

Understanding patterns of political participation of ethnic minorities is crucial for their integration within postcommunist European countries most of which are ethnically complex and with histories of conflicts. Among the latter, the post-Yugoslav states have been affected by a particularly turbulent dissolution of the former state with ethnic strife and armed conflicts taking place not that long ago (Fowkes, 2002). Many areas of public attitudes of post-Yugoslav citizens have previously been studied. For instance, increases in traditionalism, authoritarianism, and related non-democratic political-cultural orientations are well documented in the first post-dissolution phase (see, for example, Flere and Molnar, 1994; Galić, 2000). These “subject” political orientations (Almond and Verba, 1963) are one of the main obstacles of democratic consolidation (Inglehart, 1997; Welzel, 2007). In addition, for democracy to live up to its name and to be truly “effective”, equality in political participation is one of its key preconditions (see Verba et al., 1995) – especially in countries with a history of recent ethnic conflicts. Despite the extensive participation literature, less is known about the ethnic gap in participation in postcommunist countries, especially in post-Yugoslav countries. The present study therefore examined differences on two measures of political participation on a representative sample of post-Yugoslav citizens. Employed data source was the South-East European Social Survey Project (SEESSP), fielded in 2003 and 2004. The SEESSP covered former Yugoslav entities (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, FYR Macedonia, Kosovo, Montenegro, and Serbia), with the exception of Slovenia. Our analysis of SEESSP is based on those ethnic group that yielded large enough sample sizes for statistical analyses to be carried out.

In this paper we shall deal with a general problem of minority – majority relations as to democratic political participation on the basis of data collected in 2003. The sample is very sizeable, enabling the study of individual minority populations. However, the reader should bear in mind:

- The political situation since 2003 has changed in some environments fundamentally (states have appeared and disappeared: Serbia and Montenegro have separated, Kosovo declared independence, etc.), as well as other both organic and critical developments. Some political parties have appeared, while others disappeared from the political scene. In this respect, our data are not fully up to date, but enable insight of a general nature.
- We will be dealing with numerical majorities and minorities in the individual states. This does not mean that we have entered into the
political status of the two types of groups. Their constitutional and de facto political status may differ radically: in Bosnia and Herzegovina one cannot speak of political life being based on ethnic majorities and minorities, as for the three nationalities represent ‘constitutive nations’, regardless of their size. The same may hold for other entities, whereas the status of Kosovo at the time was of a transitional nature.

- We have also not entered the electoral systems in the various countries, which are of special importance, although, at the time, all the observed entities had direct elections at the ‘national’ level, as the wording of the questionnaire went. For instance, in Bosnia and Herzegovina one chamber was directly elected, Kosovo also had a parliament established; however Serbia and Montenegro also had a joint parliament. The collection of data coincided with the establishment of the State Union, which would transitorily have a parliament composed of delegates of the two republic member parliaments). All these details can be considered as niceties, as we are interested in the general pattern of numerical majority–minority relations in establishing democratic government.

Bearing this points in mind, bellow we first present a short description of the significance of participation within democracies, and then turn to a review of the past participation research and recent participation trends.

**Recent trends in political participation**

Aristotle, Rousseau, de Tocqueville, J. S. Mill and others have emphasized the importance of citizen participation, and many contemporary authors as well (Lipset, 1959; Almond and Verba, 1963; Dahl, 1971; Dalton, 1996; Barnes, 2004). Participatory democrats (Pateman, 1970; Barber, 1984) and democratic realists (Schumpeter, 1952; Sartori, 1987) agree that citizen participation is a central condition of democracy (Parry and Moyer, 1994: 46; also Almond and Verba, 1963; Easton, 1975; Inglehart, 1997; Norris, 2002). As Verba aptly put it: citizen participation is “at the heart of democracy” (Verba et al., 1995: 1). Longitudinal research regarding the participation trends has shown that changes in patterns and levels of participation have been taking place in Western and post-communist Europe in recent decades. Specifically, many studies point to a decrease in levels of voter turnout (e.g., Abramson and Aldrich, 1982; Wattenberg 1998; Gray and Caul, 2000; Macedo et al., 2005; Blais, 2007), party membership and strength of party attachment (Katz et al., 1992; Schmitt and Holmberg, 1995; Dalton, 2005; Scarrow, 2007), protest activities (Bernhagen and Marsh, 2007), social participation, e.g., decrease in membership in voluntary organizations (Rosenstone and Hansen, 1993; Putnam, 1995; 2000),
trust in politicians (Holmberg, 1999) and political/state institutions (Crozier et al., 1975; Listhaug and Wiberg, 1995; Dalton, 2004). These trends have led many authors to ask questions regarding the future of democracy (see, for instance, Kaase and Newton, 1995: ch. 7.; Macedo et al., 2005).

**Previous studies on the relationship between ethnicity and political participation**

Past research on the relationship between political participation and ethnicity in the western democracies has given mixed results. Specifically, some studies show that belonging to an ethnic minority is one of the key determinants of lower levels of political participation (Grigoriadis, 2006; Kam et al., 2008). In Britain, for instance, participation deficits are found among most minority groups (Sagar, 2007: 506), though interestingly, data on national elections in Britain shows that Indians report higher voter turnout than the whites (ibid.: 507). Similar results are also reported by Marsh and Kaase (1979: 119) and Bevelander and Spang (2008).

Other research, on the other hand, indicates that the ethnic minority status is not a significant predictor of political participation (Bevelander and Pendakur, 2009). Analysing political behaviour of ethnic minorities European societies, Sandovici and Listhaug (2010) used a broad index of participation and compared participation rates of ethnic and linguistic minorities with those of the ethnic majorities, employing 2002-03 European Social Survey data. Their study of 21 European countries indicated that differences between minority and majority groups »were virtually zero« on non-electoral political participation, although voting in national elections did display a gap between both groups. Similarly, Quintelier (2009) studied political participation of immigrant youth in Belgium and did not find “any significant differences between the political participation of young Belgians and that of young immigrants when controlling for other factors. He concludes that “immigrants in Belgium are relatively well integrated with respect to political participation” (2009: 933, also see Maxwell, 2010).

The studies by Sandovici and Listhaug, and other researchers indicate that different participation measures might produce different results. Indeed, participatory deficit among ethnic minorities is usually only found on the conventional political participation measures, while other, non-conventional participation acts (e.g., protest potential) are performed at the same or even at higher frequency among minority groups (see Marsh and Kaase, 1979: 119). In the present study, we opted to analyse two central indicators of conventional political participation measures...
(voter turnout and party membership). While on the decline, this kind of participation is still of greatest importance for the realization of representative democracies.

In sum, building on the view that inequalities in citizen engagement undermine the representativeness of a democracy (McFarland and Thomas, 2006: 401), our goal was to investigate the participation levels in former Yugoslav republics and territories, with a special focus on ethnicity.

**Study rationale and hypotheses**

There is a research gap in the literature regarding the inclusion of minorities and their political voice in post-Yugoslav societies. Indeed, the majority of research still comes from western democracies, and less is known about the ethnic differences on participation measures in postcommunist countries. Among the new democracies, post-Yugoslav countries were affected by particularly turbulent dissolution of the former state from the end of 1980s onwards, with increases in traditionalism, authoritarianism, and related non-democratic political-cultural orientations (Flere and Molnar, 1992; Galić, 2000). While these kinds of political-cultural orientations have a negative impact on the democratic process and the effectiveness of democratic institutions (Welzel, 2007), inequalities in political participation by the lines of ethnic status might additionally impede the process of democratic consolidation in post-Yugoslav countries.

Based on the previous literature, we anticipated that ethnic minorities will show lower levels of conventional political participation. Specifically, we predicted (H1) that those of minority status will have lower levels of electoral participation, as well as (H2) lower party membership rates. Finally, we were interested in cultural motivation behind political participation. Specifically, we investigated the association between authoritarian value orientations and both types of political participation, though we have not specified any explicit hypothesis regarding the nature of this link.

**Plan of analysis**

First, sampling characteristics are presented. Then the cross-country ethnic participation differences are analysed and discussed. Finally, we conclude with an overview of the core findings, and the contributions made to understanding political participation in West Balkan countries.

**Sample**

The employed data for our analyses is the South-East European Social Survey Project (SEESSP), which is one of the few survey datasets that
Covers all former Yugoslav republic and territories. As Simkus (2007) rightfully notes, there is a relative lack of cross-national social survey data in Europe, which geographically stems from Croatia to Albania. The main SEESSP project surveys were fielded from November 2003 to March 2004. Surveys were relatively complex, involving nationally representative samples, including a total of over 23,000 respondents, face-to-face interviews, which lasted an average of approximately 75 minutes. The whole SEESSP dataset is comprised of approximately 1,000 variables, and of 32 separate subsamples (for more information regarding the sampling method, see Simkus, 2007). SEESSP study is especially appropriate for analysis of ethnic minorities since Simkus and colleagues were particularly concerned to sample sufficient numbers of members of the larger ethnic minorities to allow good estimates of within-country ethnic group differences (Simkus, 2007: 7).

Consequently, sample sizes in present analysis are not accurate reflections of ethnic structure of the national populations. The reader should also note that only the samples for those minorities were analysed where the number of cases for each individual minority in the dataset was above N = 80. In the present paper sample sizes for analysed post-Yugoslav countries were as follows (aggregate N = 18,847): Bosnia and Herzegovina (N_{majority} = 2,786; N_{minority} = 3,893), Montenegro (N_{majority} = 558; N_{minority} = 1,052), Croatia (N_{majority} = 2,263; N_{minority} = 95), Kosovo (N_{majority} = 1,967; N_{minority} = 494), FYR Macedonia (N_{majority} = 1,478; N_{minority} = 993), Serbia (N_{majority} = 2,456; N_{minority} = 812).

**Measures**

The *electoral participation* was tapped by the following question: “A lot of people don’t vote these days for one reason or another. Did you vote in the last national election?” (1 = Yes, 2 = No, 3 = Not eligible to vote; 4 = Don’t know/No answer). Data analysis below shows the percentage of those who voted in the last national elections. Note again the possibility that respondents in certain environments were thinking of different ‘national elections’ than supposed by the SEESSP survey authors. In particular, respondents in Republika Srpska of the BiH may have thought of RS elections, responding Serbs in Kosovo may have thought of Serbian elections and in Serbia and Montenegro they may have thought of federal and not of republic elections. Though this is important to be clarified, it is nevertheless not absolutely relevant for us, as we

---

5 Slovenia is the only country missing in the SEESSP, but it is covered in the *European Social Survey*, which contains some items that are identical in both dataset. Slovenia was omitted from the present analysis because of its high degree of ethnic homogeneity and therefore insufficient number of cases of respondents of ethnic minority status within the ESS data.
were interested in democratic participation in general and it being related
to numerical majority – minority ethnic belonging.
Party membership was tapped by the following question: “Are you an
official member of a political party now?” (1 = Yes, 2 = No, 3 = Don’t
know/No answer). Data analysis bellow shows the percentage of those
who answered they are members of political parties.

Composite authoritarianism scale consisted of the following four Likert-
type items (1 = strongly agree, 5 = strongly disagree): »Homosexuals
are no better than criminals and should be punished in the extreme«,
»Total freedom of speech today leads to total disorganisation of
society«, »There are two kinds of people in the world, the weak and the
strong«, and »The most important thing for children to learn is to obey
their parents«. Exploratory factor analysis indicated a one-dimensional
structure of the scale, with Cronbach’s Alpha (.59) indicating sufficient
scale reliability.

Results
Results indicated that ethnic minorities had lower levels of electoral
participation in four out of six analysed countries (Graph 1), with
differences being most pronounced in Kosovo and Croatia. In both
cases, we may discern a relative dissatisfaction with the position of the
minorities (in both cases primarily Serbs). But the more general finding is
that the participation is very high, in comparison to European findings
(Sagar, 2007; Bevelander and Spang, 2008). This possibly has to do
with the entities being new, ‘young’, bringing about enthusiasm,
particularly on the part of the respective majorities. The lower general
finding in Bosnia and Herzegovina is also understandable, as all groups
are relatively dissatisfied, although from different points of view.

Smaller participation differences were found in Montenegro and Bosnia
and Herzegovina. On the other hand, in FYR Macedonia and Serbia the
minorities have slightly higher turnout rates, although the difference is
only marginal. In addition, results indicated that significant electoral
participation differences also existed among different minorities within
individual countries. Figure 2 shows the turnout rates in individual
countries by majority and minority (note that only the data for those
minorities is shown where the number of cases for each individual
minority in the dataset was above 80). The pattern of participation gap
is quite diverse in several cases. For instance, Montenegro majority has

The smallest number of cases in individual subsamples was that of Serbian
minority in Croatian sample, which consisted of 95 cases. All others (non-
analysed) subsamples fell well below 80 and were not analysed for
methodological reasons.
higher turnout rates than Serbian minority, but smaller than Bosnian and Albanian minority (see Figure 2).

Figure 1: Share of those who "voted in the last national elections" in West Balkan countries, by ethnic majority-minority status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ethnic Majority</th>
<th>Ethnic Minority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FYR Macedonia</td>
<td>87,9%</td>
<td>88,3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>73,8%</td>
<td>87,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>81,7%</td>
<td>74,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>81,6%</td>
<td>80,3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>79,2%</td>
<td>81,3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>58,1%</td>
<td>56,9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Sample sizes and differences in present analysis do not represent accurate reflections of ethnic structure of the populations. Only the samples for those minorities were analysed where the number of cases for each individual minority in the dataset was above was N ≥ 80. Sample sizes for analysed post-Yugoslav countries were as follows (aggregate N = 18,847): Bosnia and Herzegovina (N_{majority} = 2,786; N_{minority} = 3,893), Montenegro (N_{majority} = 558; N_{minority} = 1,052), Croatia (N_{majority} = 2,263; N_{minority} = 95), Kosovo (N_{majority} = 1,967; N_{minority} = 494), FYR Macedonia (N_{majority} = 1,478; N_{minority} = 993), Serbia (N_{majority} = 2,456; N_{minority} = 812).
We now turn to the analysis of our second indicator of political participation – membership in a political party. The results showed a somewhat different picture regarding the minority-majority participation differences. Specifically, ethnic majorities had the highest membership rates compared to minorities only in Montenegro, Croatia and Serbia,

Note: Sample sizes and differences in present analysis do not represent accurate reflections of ethnic structure of the populations. Only the samples for those minorities were analysed where the number of cases for each individual minority in the dataset was above was N ≥ 80. In the present paper sample sizes for analysed post-Yugoslav countries were as follows: Bosnia and Herzegovina (N_{majority} = 2,786; N_{CRO minority} = 1,846; N_{SER minority} = 2,047), Montenegro (N_{majority} = 558; N_{SER minority} = 406; N_{ALB minority} = 350; N_{BOS minority} = 296), Croatia (N_{majority} = 2,263; N_{SER minority} = 95), Kosovo (N_{majority} = 1,967; N_{SER minority} = 494), FYR Macedonia (N_{majority} = 1,478; N_{ALB minority} = 993), Serbia (N_{majority} = 2,456; N_{CRO minority} = 270; N_{BOS minority} = 243; N_{HUN minority} = 299).
while in Bosnia, Kosovo and FYR Macedonia the opposite pattern can be observed (Figure 3). One could comment that participation rates of minorities were higher in those environments with lower intensity of conflict, though Croatia can be included only conditionally. In addition, the results again indicated that a significant party membership differences also existed among different minorities within individual countries (Figure 4).

The general high rates of membership in FYR Macedonia possibly had to do with the ethnic conflict, which was still present at the time of the field survey, whereas in Montenegro it has to do not only with the tradition of politicisation of Montenegrin society, but also with the forthcoming independence referendum, which necessitated a mobilisation, particularly in view of the relatively small majority in favour of the independence (which was subsequently achieved in 2006).

The party membership rates have probably more to do with the party system (whether they hold technical membership relevant, or depend on other mechanisms of drive and mobilisation). Further, the number and fragmentation of parties needs to be mentioned and contextual analysis is needed in the future research.
Figure 3: Share of those who are "official members of a political party" in West Balkan countries, by ethnic majority-minority status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ethnic Majority</th>
<th>Ethnic Minority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FYR Macedonia</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>24.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: Sample sizes and differences in present analysis do not represent accurate reflections of ethnic structure of the populations. Only the samples for those minorities were analysed where the number of cases for each individual minority in the dataset was above N = 80. Sample sizes for analysed post-Yugoslav countries were as follows (aggregate N = 18,847): Bosnia and Herzegovina (N_{majority} = 2,786; N_{minority} = 3,893), Montenegro (N_{majority} = 558; N_{minority} = 1,052), Croatia (N_{majority} = 2,263; N_{minority} = 95), Kosovo (N_{majority} = 1,967; N_{minority} = 494), FYR Macedonia (N_{majority} = 1,478; N_{minority} = 993), Serbia (N_{majority} = 2,456; N_{minority} = 812).
Figure 4: Share of those who are "official members of a political party" in West Balkan countries, by ethnic minorities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Hungarian</th>
<th>Bosniaks</th>
<th>Albanian</th>
<th>Serbs</th>
<th>Croats</th>
<th>Ethnic majority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FYR Macedonia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>24.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>12.30%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>3.20%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.10%</td>
<td>20.60%</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>11.20%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: Sample sizes and differences in present analysis do not represent accurate reflections of ethnic structure of the populations. Only the samples for those minorities were analysed where the number of cases for each individual minority in the dataset was N ≥ 80. In the present paper sample sizes for analysed post-Yugoslav countries were as follows: Bosnia and Herzegovina (N_{majority} = 2,786; N_{CRO minority} = 1,846; N_{SER minority} = 2,047), Montenegro (N_{majority} = 558; N_{SER minority} = 406; N_{ALB minority} = 350; N_{BOS minority} = 296), Croatia (N_{majority} = 2,263; N_{SER minority} = 95), Kosovo (N_{majority} = 1,967; N_{SER minority} = 494), FYR Macedonia (N_{majority} = 1,478; N_{ALB minority} = 993), Serbia (N_{majority} = 2,456; N_{CRO minority} = 270; N_{BOS minority} = 243; N_{HUN minority} = 299).

Finally, although no major differences in motives behind political participation were found when comparing the association between authoritarian attitudes and political participation within majority and minority groups, there were some significant, although small associations. Specifically, a composite measure of authoritarianism did not correlate significantly with either of the two participation measures in majority most the subsamples, although it did for the Serbian minority.
sample in Bosnia and Herzegovina (voting; r = 0.05; p < 0.05), among the Kosovo majority (party membership; r = - 0.06; p < 0.01), among Albanian minority in FYR Macedonia (party membership; r = 0.07; p < 0.05), and among Serbian majority in Serbia (party membership; r = - 0.06; p < 0.01).

**Discussion and conclusion**

The present study has examined the nature and extent of the ethnic differences in political participation in West Balkan countries. Based on the results of our data, hypothesis 1 cannot be confirmed since uniform participation differences have not been detected (compare with Marsh and Kaase, 1979; Sagar, 2007; Bevelander and Spang, 2008; Kam et al., 2008; Maxwell, 2010). Specifically, minorities had lower levels of electoral participation in four out of six analysed samples. As already noted, participatory differences were largest in Kosovo and Croatia. Similarly, ethnic minorities had the highest membership rates comparing majorities to minorities in Bosnia, Kosovo and FYR Macedonia, which is a pattern opposite to our hypothesis 2. Again, one possible reason might be found in the nature of political parties (e.g., ethnic or even nationalist parties) that might have mobilized the citizens of ethnic minorities to join them. It is interesting that these parties were obviously not as successful at mobilizing their base at the national elections.

The finding that political participation was not found significantly associated with authoritarian value orientations indicated good future prospects for the process of democratization in West Balkan countries. In other words, if authoritarian public was the most politically involved, this could raise new kind of (old) issues and potential nationalistic and demagogic political elites might use this kind of electoral base in their advantage. Since there seems to be no such association, the future of democratic consolidation seems brighter in this sense than is frequently assumed.

Our study results have several implications for the democratization and consolidation of democracies in the Western Balkan states. It seems that minorities are not as underrepresented in political participation (excluding political “representation” in its proper sense) as in some other contexts, particularly in Western Europe and the U.S. It must be noted that our findings may be due to the recent history of ethnic conflicts, which might mobilize ethnic minorities to be especially active within conventional political participation.

Our study has several caveats, which must be mentioned. First, we have not dealt with institutional arrangements within different countries,
although it is clear that constitutional and legal provisions might play an important role in terms of political participation of minorities (see, for instance, Moser, 2004; Rechel, 2007). Neither have we dealt with the link between the presence of ethnic parties in the political system and the level of political participation of the ethnic minority (Spirova, 2004). In addition, since our analyses of SEESSP is based on those ethnic groups that yielded large enough sample sizes for statistical analyses to be carried out, we have not been able to study other ethnic minorities that are smaller in size, and their patterns of political participation might differ from the patterns found in our study. Finally, our study results might not be generalized past the observed environments, though it is evident that results may have implications for wider geopolitical region.

Despite of these shortcomings, our results nevertheless indicate that some differences in political participation exist in relation to ethnic majority-minority status, though these differences are relatively small, and not always in the expected direction. We agree with Sandovici (2006) who notes that “...in the long run it is likely that the viability of the European Union will depend on its ability to integrate not only all nation states, but all ethnic groups in one polity. This would imply that the social, economic, and political exclusion of ethnic minority groups is reduced or eliminated.”.

Authors of the present papers also believe that more focus should be given to creation of public policy provisions facilitating participation of excluded groups at the national levels and at the EU level with the aim of reducing participatory inequalities, for both ethnic minorities and other sociodemographic groups (e.g., women, youth, rural dwellers, population segments with low socioeconomic status, etc.).

---

6 In post-conflict societies, »voter support for parties willing to engage in cross-ethnic cooperation is particularly crucial for the success of democratisation, the prevention of communal violence, and regional stability« (Pickering, 2009: 565-566).
References


IMPLEMENTATION OF THE REASONABLE ACCOMODATION CONCEPT FOR PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES IN EMPLOYMENT AND REHABILITATION

Aleksandra Tabaj

Abstract
The article examines the concept of reasonable accommodation, based on the EU Directive establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation and the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, from the viewpoint of national legislation and implementation. Relevant legislation, its provisions and findings in the Republic of Slovenia are presented from studies carried out in 2009 and 2010, funded by the Slovenian Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and conducted at the Development Centre of Employment Rehabilitation of University Rehabilitation Institute. The studies examined the concept of reasonable accommodation in the area of employment and vocational rehabilitation.

The article concentrates on:
- How documents (UN, European Union) provide the framework for reasonable accommodation in the area of employment/vocational rehabilitation and employment for persons with disabilities;
- How reasonable accommodation is carried out in Slovenia; and
- How existing services can be improved with attention to gaps and barriers.

The paper concludes with recommendations for policy and practice.

Keywords: reasonable accommodation, persons with disabilities, employment, vocational rehabilitation.

1 M.Sc. Aleksandra Tabaj is head of Development Centre for Employment Rehabilitation at University Rehabilitation Institute, Republic of Slovenia (aleksandra.tabaj@ir-rs.si)
Method
A case study of reasonable accommodation for persons with disabilities is based on quantitative and qualitative data. Secondary data (legislation, reports and statistics) were collected comparing solutions in the existing legislation – the UN Convention on the Rights for Persons with Disabilities and the European Directive establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation.

Introduction
Studies have shown that in developing countries 80-90 per cent of persons with disabilities of working age are unemployed, whereas in industrialized countries the figure is between 50 and 70 per cent. Access to education and training, access to micro credit schemes and entrepreneurial opportunities, inclusive and non-discriminatory human resources policies, reasonable accommodation in the workplace, and anti-discrimination legislation are some of the key factors that contribute to the creation of equal opportunities in the open job market for persons with disabilities (Commission for Social Development, 2008).

The paper presents findings from studies carried out in 2009 and 2010 that were funded by the Slovenian Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and conducted at the Development Unit of Employment Rehabilitation of University Rehabilitation Institute. The studies examined the concept of reasonable accommodation in the area of employment and vocational rehabilitation.

In Slovenia, there are two major acts on vocational/employment rehabilitation - the first covering invalidity insurance (Pension and Invalidity Insurance Act, 2000) and second employment and rehabilitation of persons with disabilities act (Employment Rehabilitation and Employment of Persons with Disabilities Act, 2011) - which create a framework of relevant measures in the fields of services, workplace adaptations, supported employment, social economy and sheltered employment, financial reimbursements and organizational changes.

The policy and research background
In a Slovenian study “Implementation of the Concept of Reasonable Accommodation” (Tabaj et. al., 2009), two major obligatory rules – the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the European Union Council Directive 2000/78/EC establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation - are discussed in regard to Slovenian legislation. Combating discrimination is a major challenge for the European Union. Employment and work are crucial for ensuring equal opportunities for all and have a large impact
on the full participation of persons with disabilities in economic, social and culture life. In the EU Directive, minimum requirements are settled – the Directive contains a "non-regression" clause which concerns Member States whose legislation provides for a higher level of protection than that afforded by the Directive (Council, 2000).

The Directive (Council, 2000) is based on the "principle of equal treatment", meaning that there shall be no direct or indirect discrimination whatsoever on any of the grounds. The concept of discrimination, as defined in the Directive, forbids discrimination in three forms – direct or indirect discrimination and harassment.

In the article 5 of the Directive, reasonable accommodation for disabled persons is defined:

“In order to guarantee compliance with the principle of equal treatment in relation to persons with disabilities, reasonable accommodation shall be provided. This means that employers shall take appropriate measures, where needed in a particular case, to enable a person with a disability to have access to, participate in, or advance in employment, or to undergo training, unless such measures would impose a disproportionate burden on the employer. This burden shall not be disproportionate when it is sufficiently remedied by measures existing within the framework of the disability policy of the Member State concerned”.

Reasonable accommodation concept therefore contains at least three stakeholders – person(s) with disabilities, employer(s), Member State(s). Besides that, it also concerns providers of reasonable accommodation measures although these are not mentioned in the Directive. Their role is of highest importance since they connect all previous three stakeholders. Possible solutions within reasonable accommodation can be addressed towards measures for adapting the workplace (adapting premises and equipment, patterns of working time, the distribution of tasks or the provision of training or integration resources) as said in the Preamble, paragraph 20, of the Directive.

United Nations study of reasonable accommodation (United Nations, 2006), which examined different national legislations, revealed that the concept of reasonable accommodation varies in national legislations in regard to its terms or contents or the connection with undue burden.

Studies on the provision of reasonable accommodation show importance of cost-effectiveness, not only in cases of individual persons with disabilities, but also for persons without disabilities and employers
Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences, Vol. 5, No. 1

(Sanford and Milchus, 2006). American legislation (ADA) – based on policies of human capital investments and pro-work support policies – also attempts to break down physical barriers to the use of existing human capital by addressing the problems of labour market discrimination and employer accommodation (Burkhauser and Stapleton, 2004).

In the case of the US economy, operating within an individualist framework, civil rights have not given sufficient attention to structural barriers in employment (Russell, 2002).

“Rights remain empty promises if they are not enforced. Litigation and test case strategies have become an important way of enforcing rights”. The strategy of the United Kingdom Disability Discrimination Act concentrates not only on litigation but also on test cases in British courts, which is not the practice in Slovenia. Civil society organizations have turned to the courts as the strategy (Vanhala 2006). In the case of DDA, the act was introduced with a widespread public campaign for civil rights for disabled people (Renton, 2006), which was a step towards awareness raising and practical enforcement of the rights. Litigation could be and has been a useful tool for fighting discrimination in the UK.

How far-reaching the concept can be is seen from the European Court of Human Rights cases – in the case Glor v. Switzerland, the Court concluded violation under the European Convention on Human Rights (Netherlands Institute of Human Rights). The Courts decision explained that there was no reasonable justification in the case. After the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities had been signed and ratified, as a legally binding instrument, the monitoring committee of this important international body has started to work and evaluate a country’s legislation and practice.

In Slovenian legislation, several acts define disability differently. The Act on Employment and Rehabilitation defines disability on the basis of assessment which transfers the ICF principles into focus questions that define disability. The assessment defines five stages: no disability, minor disability, moderate disability, severe disability and complete disability (Rules, 2005). When assessing individual cases, medical impairment is not enough to define disability. A person has to face difficulties and barriers in employment. The definition is therefore based on a social model of disability.

Disability assessment under the Pension and Invalidity Insurance Act is more medical, if compared to the Employment and Rehabilitation Act: “Pursuant to the Act, invalidity shall be ascertained if due to changes in
health condition which cannot be reversed by treatment or by measures of medical rehabilitation and have been ascertained pursuant to the present Act, the capacity of an insured person to secure or keep a job or to advance in career has been reduced” (Act on Pension and Disability Insurance, 2005).

Regarding persons with disabilities, Article 5 from the Directive is the most far-reaching provision and can be seen as a consequence of this inclusive concept and social model, as said in the study “Providing reasonable accommodation for persons with disabilities in the workplace in the EU – good practices and financing schemes” (KMU Forschung Austria, 2008). The study provides a classification of provisions of reasonable accommodation and describes possibilities of reasonable accommodation in five ways:

- Technical solutions: in many cases technical solutions are indispensable prerequisite to enable a person with disabilities to start the employment. Solutions are mostly required for employees with physical and sensory disabilities.
- Organisational arrangements: modern work organization can entail new forms of work – adjusting working hours, telework, and redistribution of tasks.
- Provisions of assistance: work assistant, job coach and co-worker.
- Qualifications measures: training, further qualification.
- Awareness-raising measures: target at social environment – management.
- Colleagues, customers.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and its Optional Protocol were adopted on 13 December 2006. In January 2010, 144 signatories to the Convention, 87 signatories to the Optional Protocol, 76 ratifications of the Convention and 48 ratifications of the Protocol were adopted. Slovenia has made progress towards disability rights, especially in the political agenda. In 2008, during the period of the Slovenian presidency in the Council of the European Union, a ratification of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities was signed, so the rules from the convention should be respected.

The approach motivated on the human-rights perspective on disability – persons with disabilities as holders of rights - means addressing the manner in which various economic and social processes accommodate the difference of disability (Quinn, Degener 2002).

Ratification of the Convention (Slovenian Ombudsman’s Annual Report, 2008) was assessed as just the first step towards a different attitude of
the state to persons with disabilities. The report finds the activity of the state not efficient enough and not sufficiently promoting equal opportunities. The basis for equal opportunities and non-discrimination is reasonable accommodation. The Convention is not specific enough to tell what obligations are foreseen. From the Ombudsman’s activities it is obvious that they explained possible solutions to public authorities and that it is necessary to accept detailed rules on how to implement reasonable accommodation solutions. The report sees personal assistance as one of the important solutions which has to be based on the legislation.

According to the Convention (Convention, 2006), discrimination is not defined only as distinction, exclusion and restriction, but is also covering the denial of reasonable accommodation, which is the most important and far reaching measure:

- "Discrimination on the basis of disability means any distinction, exclusion or restriction on the basis of disability which has the purpose or effect of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal basis with others, of all human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field. It includes all forms of discrimination, including denial of reasonable accommodation.

- Reasonable accommodation means necessary and appropriate modification and adjustments not imposing a disproportionate or undue burden, where needed in a particular case, to ensure to persons with disabilities the enjoyment or exercise on an equal basis with others of all human rights and fundamental freedoms."

Reasonable Accommodation in Employment and Vocational Rehabilitation for Persons with Disabilities

General data regarding employment and vocational training of persons with disabilities in Slovenia

According to the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 31,347 disabled persons were employed in 2010. Fewer than one half of people with disabilities are employed. Among the disabled 2-3 times more people are unemployed than among the non-disabled (Statistical Office, 2010).
Table 1: Reasonable accommodation solutions – possibility through acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Slovenian Act on Pension and Invalidity Insurance Act (ZPIZ-1)</th>
<th>Act on Employment and Rehabilitation of Persons with Disabilities (ZZRZI)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical solutions</td>
<td>Possible</td>
<td>Possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational</td>
<td>Possible</td>
<td>Possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arrangements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of assistance</td>
<td>Not possible</td>
<td>Possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>Possible</td>
<td>Possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>measures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness raising</td>
<td>Not possible</td>
<td>Possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>measures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Resources: University Rehabilitation Institute – Implementation of the concept of reasonable accommodation in the field of employment of persons with disabilities, 2009

**Act on Employment and Rehabilitation for Persons with Disabilities**
The Employment and Rehabilitation Act can cover all areas, so theoretically all areas of ensuring reasonable accommodation solutions can be implemented. But actually there is a gap between possibility and practice.

Technical solutions are based on proposals by employers. Since 2004, there have been only 3 proposals of this possibility (in 5 years), and none in 2010. Regarding organizational arrangements, sheltered employment is possible. In 2010, there were 27 employment centres, employing 296 persons with disabilities (Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, 2010). 152 companies for persons with disabilities employed 5,353 persons with disabilities and 6,978 non-disabled persons (Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, 2010).

Regarding assistance, there is a possibility of claiming supported employment services within the network of providers of employment rehabilitation. In 2010, approx. 10 persons per month were included in supported employment services, the number of services delivered on a monthly basis was low - 2.5 hours per month. The second possibility is claiming support services for supported employment from the
Foundation for promoting employment for persons with disabilities, yet this solution is very rare - only one case from period 2006-2010 (Kovač et. al., 2010).

Qualifications measures – services of employment rehabilitation are spread all over Slovenia through the network of 14 providers. 2,034 persons were engaged in this solution in 2010.

In regard to the awareness-raising measures – legally, there has been the possibility of awarding the best practice of employer for persons with disabilities since the Foundation for promoting employment of persons with disabilities was established in 2005, however, there have been no calls for tenders.

**Slovenian Pension and Invalidity Insurance Act**

Within the Pension and Invalidity Insurance Act, there are several possibilities concerning reasonable accommodation solutions for persons with disabilities. The most important are organizational arrangements – solutions covering reduced working time and reassignment to appropriate work place. According to the 2010 Annual Report by the Pension and Invalidity Insurance Institute, in 2010:

- 5,235 persons with disabilities were on benefits for reduced working time,
- 21,630 persons on benefits for reassignments (14,197 of them in waiting for appropriate work place and 7,433 on another appropriate work place),
- 20 adaptations of workplaces started,
- 342 persons with disabilities were in vocational rehabilitation, and
- 107 persons with disabilities were on training at the workplace.

There are similar solutions in legislations of other countries – for example, DDA gives several examples of reasonable adjustments (equivalent to the term reasonable accommodation) including making adjustments to the premises, allocating some of the disabled person’s duties to another person, transferring him/her to fill an existing vacancy, altering his/her working hours, assigning him/her to a different place of work, allowing him/her to be absent during working hours for rehabilitation, assessment or treatment, giving him/her or arranging to be given training, and acquiring or modifying equipment (Renton, 2006).

In Slovenian case, as seen from the data, a lot of emphasis has been put on sheltered employment (employment centres) and social economy (companies for persons with disabilities), compared to just a few cases of supported employment (open labour market).
Table 2: Realisation of reasonable accommodation solutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasonable accommodation solutions – possibility through acts</th>
<th>Slovenian Act on Pension and Disability Insurance in 2010</th>
<th>Act on Employment and Rehabilitation of Persons with Disabilities in 2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical solutions</td>
<td>20 workplace adaptations</td>
<td>0 workplace adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational arrangements</td>
<td>5,235 part time work 21,630 reassignment</td>
<td>296 persons with disabilities, working in 27 sheltered employment centres 5,353 persons with disabilities, working in 152 companies for persons with disabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisions of (personal) assistance</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 person with disability received supported employment services from the Foundation for promoting employment for persons with disabilities app. 10 persons with disabilities per month received supported services within the network of providers (app. 2.5 hours per month)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications measures</td>
<td>342 vocational rehabilitation 107 persons with disability in training</td>
<td>2,034 persons in employment rehabilitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness raising measures</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27,334</td>
<td>7,694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>35,028</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Resources: Institute for Pension and Invalidity Insurance, Employment Service of Slovenia, Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, University Rehabilitation Institute

From the graph below it is seen that the main types of reasonable accommodation are organisational arrangements under Act on Pension and Invalidity Insurance (98.28%).

Graph 1: Realisation through Pension and invalidity insurance act (2010)

From the second graph it is clearly seen that organizational activities (72.39%) are the dominant activity beside training activities (26.06%) based on the Act on Employment and Rehabilitation for Persons with Disabilities.
Graph 2: Realisation through Act on Employment and Rehabilitation for Persons with Disabilities (2010)

Resources: Ministrstry of labour, family and social affairs and University rehabilitation institute

Other solutions – provision of assistance, technical solutions and awareness-raising activities are very rare or none. However, the Act on Employment and Rehabilitation of Persons with Disabilities is broader in principle and it could cover also those areas.

Comparing the numbers discloses the absence of assistance solutions and awareness-raising activities. In the future, a more balanced approach is needed. Providers of vocational rehabilitation and rehabilitation counsellors fill the gap between the written rules and practice when preparing person with disabilities for entering the labour market.

Special forms of economy (employment centres, companies for persons with disability) are still predominant in regard to supported employment. Supported employment programmes in Slovenia cover just a few cases, with low numbers of hours per month, when comparing to employed persons with disabilities in companies for persons with disabilities, employing more than 5,300 persons there.
It is necessary to spread the possibility of reasonable accommodation, not only in employment but starting with vocational rehabilitation programmes. One of the challenges is the emergence of a broader range of new and multiple disabilities, which require new technology solutions or services, in addition to a limited possibility to access vocational rehabilitation. In the future it is expected that there will be more interfaces with technology and new approaches in rehabilitation engineering, which will improve the speed, efficiency and effectiveness of services to customers (Lewis, 2008).

To conclude, gaps in awareness raising, provision of assistance (personal assistance, supported employment) and technical solutions have been noticed in Slovenia. Slovenian authorities have detected the very urgent need of personal assistance. Two acts are being prepared to cover the gap between employment and vocational rehabilitation – Act on Personal Assistance for Persons with Disabilities and Act on Longterm Care and Insurance for Longterm Care.

**Conclusion**
A rights-based approach connecting reasonable accommodation as a right and practical solutions should be enforced not only in the acts but also as a part of a broad strategy.

Legislation alone is not enough. Even if we have legislative solutions, it seems that practices of institutions responsible for the enforcement of rights and potentials of the legislation in individual cases have shown that persons with disabilities could not access their rights. Moreover, the examples of such practice have an influence on employers.

Reasonable accommodation is a promising way of integrating people with disabilities into the labour market. The relationship between reasonable accommodation solutions in legislation and reasonable accommodation solutions in practice should be an index of achieving the integration of labour market equality. Policy options are a start of a reasonable accommodation possibility, but are not enough.
Resources
Employment Rehabilitation and Employment of Persons with Disabilities Act (2011) Uradni list RS No. 87/2


ANALYSIS OF THE SATISFACTION OF THE ELDER CARE HOME RESIDENTS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR THE QUALITY IMPROVEMENTS OF ELDER CARE HOME SERVICE DELIVERY

Suzana Bračič¹, Majda Pšunder²

Abstract
This article looks at the problem of aging and the characteristics of institutional care in elder care homes. Also, the results of the empirical study carried out in 15 publicly owned and 15 privately run residential homes for elderly persons distributed across Slovenia are presented here. The aim of this research was to determine the level of resident satisfaction in both privately or publicly-owned residential homes. The research findings are the basis for the outlined improvement suggestions in residential home service delivery with the aim to increase resident satisfaction with staff performance.

Keywords: aging, residential care home for elderly persons, residential care, needs of elderly people, resident satisfaction with staff performance

Introduction
Aging population, which means the increasing number of people reaching older age, is driven mainly by substantial progress in the economic, social and health sector, since this leads to longer, more comfortable and safer lives in European citizens than ever before. The increase in the numbers of older people is a great challenge for modern society. As a consequence new problems such as the increasing proportion of older people who need appropriate health care and nursing come to the foreground; and not only this but also problems such as social marginalization and isolation of older people, social stratification, changes in values, and views of ageing and old people, adult children who find it more difficult to take care of their elderly, etc. can be observed (SORS – The aging population in Slovenia, 2010). Solutions can be found also in providing the necessary capacity within the institutional care for elderly people.

¹ Susan Bračič, doctoral candidate at the Faculty of Arts, Head of Finance and Accounting in the Home of the Elderly, Slovenia, megasuzana (at) gmail.com.
² Majda Pšunder, Ph.D., associate professor at the Faculty of Arts, Slovenia, majda.psunder (at) um.si.
All European Union Member States are committed to providing general access and ensuring high quality long-term care for their elderly citizens. The aging population makes it more difficult to tackle funding and logistical challenges at present but the issue will only become more evident in the future, as governments have to perform their functions in a competitive environment of increasing needs and with limited resources (Long-Term Care and the European Union, 2008: 2).

Since Europeans tend to live longer public funding of health care and long-term care represent the second largest expenditure on social protection, immediately following the expenditure on old age pensions and survivors’ pensions. With a higher life expectancy a pressing need to provide long-term care services at an older person’s home or in institutional settings for care homes is created (The World in 2025: Contributions from an expert group, 2009).

Home for elderly people is a community with certain norms and rules (Hojnik-Zupanc, 1994: 2-3). The purpose of institutional care is to provide the best service delivery possible to meet the basic needs of those who are, due to illness or overall physical infirmity, functionally chronically impaired, besides delivering basic health care services. It is important to emphasize here that the purpose of residential care is to meet all the needs of elderly people who are no longer capable of taking care of themselves.

Despite the house rules living in an elderly care home is tailored to the residents' demands, needs and wishes. On the other hand, independent life and care of oneself is encouraged and desirable since it not only relieves the staff of their duties a bit but also maintains vitality in residents and keeps them active in their late life. Residents can spend their leisure time engaging in various employment activities, for quite some activities are available for those who are still mobile whereas activities for the immobile persons are very few (Mali, 2006: 24-27).

Quality of life could be defined as the extent to which people's requirements are met – and also how consistently these needs are met. Even if provision of certain services is very good, the failing to fulfill other important needs can cause distress, and it may also turn the existing satisfaction into dissatisfaction (Ramovš, 2003: 87). In measuring the quality of life in residential care cognitive, emotional, and functional skills important for older people and their welfare have to be taken into account (Nasser and Doumit, 2008: 73).
Research Methodology

The purpose of the research
The purpose of this investigation that forms a part of doctoral thesis is to get the insight into the problems older people are facing in residential homes; and also to obtain their views on how things should be improved in the future.

The aim of the research
The aim of the empirical research was to research into current satisfaction of care home residents with the level of their met needs according to the type of home they live in. Based on the results of research improvement suggestions that would contribute to greater customer satisfaction and quality of life of residents in homes for the aged are put forward.

Research methods
The empirical research is based on a combination of quantitative (we have used descriptive and causal, i.e. nonexperimental method) and qualitative educational research (i.e. a questionnaire).

Using a five-point Likert scale, we have researched into the residents' views about the satisfaction with their care needs being met. The category of needs has been divided into five main areas, namely physiological needs, security and safety needs, needs for love and belonging, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualization.

The collected data have been transferred to a common scorecard database in SPSS program using descriptive statistics and nonparametric statistical tests processing. The test of the set of hypotheses was performed by estimating the associations between the dependent variables using the $\chi^2$-test, t-test, and Welch-Satterthwaite approximation.

Survey sample
The survey was conducted between December 2010 and January 2011 in 15 publicly, and in 15 privately owned residential care homes (which is 31.91% of all the facilities) that are distributed across Slovenia. Of all the 300 handed-out questionnaires, 260 were returned, 53% of these from the respondents in privately owned residential care homes. The response rate was comparatively high at 89.3 percent. The residents that were capable of answering the survey questions participated in the survey which was carried out with the help of the appointed home staff.
Research hypotheses
The theoretical background and survey questions have helped us to examine the following hypotheses:
- H1: It is assumed that there will be no difference in met physiological needs between the residents of two types of homes.
- H2: It is assumed that there will be a difference in met security and safety needs between the residents of the two types of homes.
- H3: It is assumed that there will be a difference in met need for love/belonging between the residents of the two types of homes.
- H4: It is assumed that there will be no difference in met esteem needs between the residents of the two types of homes.
- H5: It is assumed that there will be no difference in met self-actualization need between the residents of the two types of homes.

The research variables
We have investigated the following variables in this empirical study:
1. Type of home ownership
2. Home residents' opinion on their met physiological needs
3. Home residents' opinion on their met safety and security needs
4. Home residents' opinion on their met need for love and belongingness
5. Home residents' opinion on their met esteem needs
6. Home residents' opinion on their met self-actualization needs

Research results and interpretation
a) Physiological needs
These include the need of food, water, clothing, sleep, rest, medical care, cleanliness and social care.
As seen from Table 1, Levine test showed that $\alpha=0.131$, which means that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is justified because $\alpha>0.05$. The t-test result shows that the difference between the types of homes is not a statistically significant in what concerns basic physiological needs of the residents being met. The result obtained confirms the hypothesis H1, which assumes that there is no difference in met physiological needs between the types of homes. We can reach the conclusion that in care homes the residents' most important physiological needs are met to the greatest extent possible. For until physiological needs are met, other, higher needs cannot emerge.

**b) Security and safety needs**

Among them are the needs for personal safety and property, security, safe shelter, the need for health and social security, the need for physical and psychological security, as is the right to property, protection and potential complaint in case of dissatisfaction with the service delivery; the right to be informed, the right to be informed about one's medical condition and about all available treatment options and care; the right to be informed on all available leisure activities, accommodation options, measures of social protection, and financial security.
Table 2: Met safety and security needs according to the type of home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECURITY AND SAFETY NEEDS</th>
<th>PUBLICLY OWNED</th>
<th>PRIVATELY OWNED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arithmetic mean (M)</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation (SD)</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levene's F-test</td>
<td>F=0.118, P=0.731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-test (test of differences in arithmetic means)</td>
<td>t=-0.309, g=258, P=0.758</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own research.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances (Levene's F-test), as shown in Table 2, is justified (F=0.018, P=0.731). The results of the t-test showed that the type of home does not represent a statistically significant difference in meeting the residents' security and safety needs (t =-0.395, P=0.693). Looking at the average estimates in publicly (3.96) and privately owned homes (3.99), we can see that there are no significant differences in the assessment of this need between the types of home. Therefore we reject the hypothesis H2 about the difference in meeting security and safety needs between the types of homes. We assume that security and safety needs are important in life of elderly people, and that this need is met to the greatest extent possible both in privately as well as in publicly owned homes.

c) Need for love and belongingness
We can find some of the following needs in this category: the need for appraisal, the need to change, the need to be accepted, the need for companionship that is realized by the integration of residents in institutional care, development of human relationships, maintaining contact with family members, friends and acquaintances, getting acquainted with new roommates and home staff, developing intergenerational relationships, and house rules respect.
From the data analysis (Table 3) it can be seen that Levene's test (F=2.165, P=0.142) showed no statistically significant differences between the variances. The result of the t-test indicates that the difference in meeting the needs of belongingness is not statistically significant (t=0.190, P=0.850). Hypothesis H3, which assumes that the difference in meeting the needs for belongingness depends on the type of home, can be refused. We can therefore come to the conclusion that the needs for love and belongingness are met in both privately as well as publicly owned care homes, but the average estimate of the extent to which these needs are satisfied is lesser than that of the physiological needs and security needs. This means that residents have estimated that on average their physiological needs are fully satisfied, these are then followed by the fulfillment of their security needs, with the met need for belonging being only in the third place.

d) Esteem needs
Esteem needs include the need for self-respect and respect for others, the need for high and stable self-esteem, desire for power, achievement, management competency of daily activities, ability to meet challenges of the world with confidence, the need for independence, the need of freedom and self-government, desire for prestige, property, awards and praises, attention, importance and dignity.
Table 4: Met esteem needs according to the type of home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF OWNERSHIP</th>
<th>PUBLICLY OWNED</th>
<th>PRIVATELY OWNED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arithmetic mean (M)</strong></td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard deviation (SD)</strong></td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Levene's F-test (test of homogeneity of variances)</strong></td>
<td>F=0.68, P=0.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>t-test (test of differences in arithmetic means)</strong></td>
<td>t=0.699, g=258, P=0.485</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own research.

As shown in Table 4, the assumption of homogeneity of variances (Levene's F-test) is justified (F=0.68, P=0.41). The result of the t-test shows that the difference between the types of homes in meeting esteem needs (t=0.699, P=0.485) is not statistically significant. The average assessment of this need in publicly (3.30) and privately owned homes (3.25) shows that there are no significant differences in residents' assessment according to the type of home. As a consequence of this we accept hypothesis H4 presuming that there will be no difference in meeting the esteem needs according to the type of care home. We can find that the average estimates of fulfilling the esteem needs are lower than those of meeting physiological needs, needs for security and belonging, even though these needs are fulfilled at a similar level both in privately and publicly owned homes. This means that residents wish to have lower, i.e. physiological needs met first, and are then only followed by higher needs, such as the requirements for esteem.

e) **Self-actualization needs**
Self-actualization needs include the need for education, cultural activities, creative activities, comprehensive development of the individual, and the need to participate in daily activities of care home.
Table 5: Met self-actualization needs according to the type of home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF OWNERSHIP</th>
<th>Arithmetic mean (M)</th>
<th>Standard deviation (SD)</th>
<th>Levene’s F-test (test of homogeneity of variances)</th>
<th>t-test (test of differences in arithmetic means)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Publicly owned</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>F=5.66, P=0.018</td>
<td>t=4.323, g=256.31, P=0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Privately owned</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own research.

Levene's test showed that the assumption of homogeneity of variances, as shown in Table 5, is not justified (F=5.66, P=0.018). The result of the t-test shows that there is a statistically significant difference in meeting the needs of self-actualization (t=4.323, P=0.00) between the types of homes. This difference can be seen in the average assessment, which is higher in privately owned homes (3.97) than in publicly owned ones (3.64). The result obtained rejects the hypothesis H5, which assumes that there are no differences in fulfilling the needs of self-actualization according to the type of home. We find that self-realization needs are met to greater extent in privately owned than in publicly owned ones. Average estimates on the satisfaction of these needs are lower than those of the fulfillment of physiological needs and security needs and those for belonging; however, they are satisfied to a higher degree than esteem needs.

f) Comparison of met needs
Figure 1 shows that the average estimate given by the residents about the fulfillment of all their needs in publicly owned homes is 3.76, and in privately owned sector it is 3.83. Data analysis shows that residents' needs are satisfied more fully than they are in privately run ones so we may come to the conclusion that private sector is more oriented toward meeting the individual needs of older people.
Conclusion
Data analysis of empirical research has shown that residents in privately owned homes are generally more satisfied with their met needs than those elderly people who reside in publicly owned facilities. Residents' satisfaction with residential protection is related to the quality of living in elder care homes, and the things that matter to them the most are connected with interpersonal relations, spatial organization of home, quality of food, service, and variety and quality of additional services offered by the home. Residents' satisfaction is an important indicator of the quality of home care, and it also shows to what extent the residents' needs and preferences are met and tailored to their individual needs.

Our empirical research shows that there are no statistically significant differences between the types of homes what concerns the satisfaction of residents' physiological needs, security needs, needs for belonging, and esteem needs. We can therefore reach the conclusion that these kinds of needs are largely met in care homes, whereas the needs for self-actualization are satisfied to a higher degree in privately own homes, compared with their provision in publicly owned facilities. As a
consequence of this finding we suggest that publicly owned care homes do more to meet their residents' needs for educational activities, cultural events, creative activities and their comprehensive development.

We suggest that the homes for the elderly built in the future follow the modern model of household groups, both in designing from the perspectives of the elderly, and in the choice of programs that are better suited to the needs of older people. Care homes should be located in relatively quiet and unpolluted neighborhoods. Well groomed parks should be in close proximity to the homes so as to provide a place for relaxation, daily walks and sporting activities.

The design of residential care homes should make elderly people feel happy and comfortable with furniture and fittings suited for elderly residents, handrails and stair railings installed on staircases, in hallways and in bathrooms. They should also be installed in bathrooms to prevent slip and fall accidents on wet floors. Elevator doors should be set so as to leave enough time for safe entry and exit. Care homes should have the best new equipment available and the latest gadgets to provide more comfort and higher quality of life for the residents.

It is important that the needs of residents are met to the greatest extent and that they feel comfortable, as this promotes their well-being and results in positive thinking. Residents have the right to be informed about their medical condition and all available treatment options and care. It is desirable that residents are involved in the creation, feeding suggestions and proposals about the improvements of the institutional life. We believe that it is necessary to provide the most active and full life for the residents. It is also not less important for the residents to participate in daily activities because their involvement helps improve their own quality of life. It is useful to regularly inform the residents about everyday life and work in the home. The residents and families should be able to give comments, suggestions, complaints and requests either by writing them down in the book of compliments and complaints, reporting them to the personnel in charge, or addressing the home management about them directly.

We find that the staff has a significant impact on the well-being of care home residents. Residents have the most frequent contact with the staff at the lower hierarchy levels (medical assistants, medics, nurses, medical technicians), and less frequent contact with senior staff. For that reason it would be desirable for the employees to wear such work clothes that would not look like work uniforms but would rather resemble casual clothes which would imply more familiarity and help build trust
between the residents and the staff. They should also wear ID badges, with the name and position title.

It would be useful that the Government set the employment policy which would be well adapted to the actual staffing needs of any certain contractor or his users. To facilitate residents' needs better we propose a creation of a new job description, i.e. 'residential home care giver' who would be there for the residents throughout the day and would care for the entire household (do the cleaning, cooking, washing, ironing, provide companionship for the residents, be a fitness instructor and activity coordinator), and do other work that does not require previous medical training.

We assume that the residents have low pensions, which makes it difficult for them to cover the costs of their stay in the home. We therefore present a new finance scheme for institutional care, namely that the Government should cover the costs currently paid by the users, which would relieve financial burden of home care for the elderly. Health Insurance Company should continue to cover the expenses for medical care, and leave the basic cost of the so-called "hotel costs" of care to the user.

Only with regard to personal habits and needs of care home residents and with improving the living standard of the residents, the working conditions and quality of life of eldercare home residents it will be possible to meet the needs of the existing residents and attract new ones.
References
QUALITY OF PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE CIVIL SERVICE OF MACEDONIA: WHAT ROLE FOR THE CODE OF ETHICS?

Agim Selami

Abstract
The ongoing Public Administration Reform (PAR) process in Macedonia is being largely focused on public service delivery improvement. Despite the efforts, the Civil Service in Macedonia is being continuously criticized for the low level of its public services delivery. Main weaknesses brought in the focus involve various forms of unethical behavior of civil servants including, but not limited to, corruptive acts, inappropriate behavior in their daily communication with clients, and hesitations to serve the public interest as required by the constitution and the laws. The paper analyzes the role of the Code of Ethics for Civil Servants in the advancement of the quality of the services delivered to the citizens. It concludes that it has failed to make an impact in the public service delivery. It further elaborates that the marginal role results mainly from the lack of attention and focus on the Government’s side in enforcing the document fully.

Keywords: ethics, code of ethics, civil service, public administration, public services, Macedonia.

Introduction and theoretical framework
Governments around the globe are putting vast efforts on strengthening the rapport between them and the citizens. This rapport, which among others entails accountability toward the citizens, is what makes the nature of work and function of public administrations exceptionally specific. Civil Servants are expected to serve the public interest the best way possible, treat all citizens equally and execute their duties and tasks in compliance with the laws. Simply put, civil servants need to be guided by ethical norms and principles serving as an aid in preventing and overcoming various types of conflicts and troubles at work. Achieving the aforementioned is precisely the challenge that governments are continuously coping with.

The importance of introducing ethics principles in the Public Administration (PA) has been recognized since the 1940s. Wayne A. R.

---

Agim Selami is an MA Candidate of Public Policy Department at the Central European University, Hungary (seljami_agim (at) student.ceu.hu).
Leys’s (1944) work represents the initial attempts to shed light on the advantages that ethics principles would bring to the overall make-up of the US bureaucracy. As he argues, customs can no longer be considered as a driving force in making public policy decisions. This holds true in particular for decisions that relate to new areas (of that period) such as unemployment insurance, fair telephone rates, and minimum airplane altitudes, where making use of customs would lead to misinformation and the adoption of wrong policies; thus, civil servants would have to rely on new ethics and moral principles that aid the policy-making process.

The identified need of having ethics principles adopted in the public service, as pointed out by Wayne A. R. Leys, has been advanced to the level of framing them in peculiar documents, widely known as Codes of Ethics. The proliferation that is being recorded in the adoption of Codes of Ethics only signifies the popularity and the attention that this type of document receives. As an illustration, adopting Codes of Ethics in Macedonia has been set as a mandatory requirement for the overall workforce employed in the public sector including civil servants and public servants at both central and local levels, police officers as well as people employed in the judicial sector. In addition, such a requirement is precisely contained in the UN Convention against Corruption which stipulates that “once recruited, public servants should be subject to codes of conduct, requirements for financial and other disclosures, and appropriate disciplinary measures. Transparency and accountability in matters of public finance must also be promoted, and specific requirements are established for the prevention of corruption, in the particularly critical areas of the public sector, such as the judiciary and public procurement. Those, who use public services, must expect a high standard of conduct from their public servants.” To conclude, the importance of the Codes of Ethics is mainly derived from the fact that they are supposed to increase citizens’ confidence in government. H. George Frederickson (1993: 158) asserts that this may be achieved by reassuring citizens that private power and interest do not subvert government decisions.

There is, indeed, an unquestionable consensus among a plethora of authors that Codes of Ethics shape the work of civil services in a positive way. Donald C. Menzel (2007) names it as “conventional wisdom” that accounts for a positive influence in governance. He adds that their strength lies in deterring unethical behavior of ethically motivated public servants, acting as a helpful guide for their behavior. As for unethically motivated officials, the Codes of Ethics wouldn’t really do much. They would be unethical regardless of whether a code is in place.
What is also true is that having Codes of Ethics only formally adopted guarantees no impact at all in the functioning of the public administration; and even less in the service delivery. This is an insufficient effort as publishing a Code of Ethics, by itself, will achieve little (Transparency International, 2001). Therefore, Codes of Ethics adopted in the apparatus of public administration should be well-crafted and well-staffed. Only in this way may they accomplish a number of vital purposes such as restoring and supporting public trust and the legitimacy of governments, limiting the ability of private power and subvert fair access to government; as well as to provide forums of judgments where citizens can question practices which they believe violate the public trust (H. George Frederickson, 1993: 159). In addition, it is essential to link meaningful and enforceable Ethics Codes to systemic practices and procedures, based on legislation, and backed by management leadership and high-level political commitment, and ongoing 'professional ethics' training (Transparency International, 2001).

The theory provided above clearly illuminates the importance that authors attach to the Codes of Ethics in establishing citizens-centered and service-oriented Civil Service systems. Being guided by the theoretical framework presented, the main research question that will be treated in this paper involves analysis of the impact that Code of Ethics for Civil Servants in Macedonia is having in the advancement of the quality of public services delivered to the citizens. Correspondingly, it will shed light on whether the progress achieved, if any, is a result of the decent implementation of the Code of Ethics. Addressing the research question is supposed to be a rather difficult task. This lies in the fact, asserted by H. George Frederickson, (1993), that despite the proliferation of ethics codes, very little is known how they are implemented or how they function. An additional limitation in conducting this research paper may arise due to the lack of publicly available (quantitative) data in regard to citizens’ level of satisfaction with the public services they receive.

**Code of Ethics in the Macedonian Civil Service – Focus on Public Service Delivery**

The Civil Service in Macedonia is being continuously criticized for the low level of its service delivery. Main weaknesses brought in the focus involve various forms of unethical behavior of civil servants including but not limited to corruptive acts, inappropriate behavior in their daily communication with clients, and hesitations to serve the public interest as required by constitution and law. However, in order to diminish the exposure of the above-mentioned negative attributes attached to the civil
servants; along with the objective of meeting requirements for acquiring full fledged EU membership and catching up with global trends in the area of Public Administration Reform (PAR), authorities of Macedonia decided to adopt the Law on Civil Servants which stipulated the adoption of the Code of Ethics for Civil Servants.

The Code of Ethics for Civil Servants was adopted for the first time in 2001 and it emanated from the provisions of the Law on Civil Servants, adopted in 2000. The responsibility to draft and adopt the Code of Ethics for Civil Servants belongs to the Agency of Administration (previously named as Civil Servants Agency). Providing the citizens with high-quality public services is a key principle contained in this document. In this aspect, it stipulates that Civil Servants are required to execute their duties and obligations effectively, efficiently and in a highly professional manner. In their rapport with the citizens, they are required to comply with the principles of equal treatment, mutual understanding, and maximum willingness to help them. By now, the Code has been in place for a period of ten years, thus, it represents a solid foundation for research and analysis.

Looking back at what has been done in the area of public service delivery improvement, besides the adoption of the Code of Ethics - additional milestones that signify certain progress can be mentioned. The entire corpus of political parties that were granted power to rule the country to date has included PAR and improved service delivery in their respective programs. This indicates that delivering public services that satisfy citizens’ needs and expectations stands high on the political agenda. Another milestone worth mentioning is the attempt to set up proper infrastructure for evaluation of the work of the civil service. This refers to the “Gragjanski dnevnik” or “Citizens’ Diary”, aimed at offering citizens a mechanism for direct evaluation of received services. Furthermore, a single phone-number and website as a guide and orientation of citizens in communicating with the civil service as well as with other public bodies have been launched. Another recently launched wise mechanism for evaluating public services is the so-called “traffic lights/scoreboard”. It is installed in a few pilot state institutions where citizens may choose between red, yellow, and green - each of them respectively indicating unsatisfactory, neutral and satisfactory services.

Despite the efforts to raise the quality level of provided public services, the attitude of the citizens toward the state as provider of public services remains unchanged – largely negative. Evidence that backs this is contained in the Life in Transition Report for 2010 published by the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Concerning
satisfaction of Macedonian citizens with public services, the report provides the following assessment: “In all sectors, apart from the health care and unemployment benefit system, fewer than 10 per cent of respondents admit to bribing. It is possible that networks substitute for bribery in public services. Over a half of respondents say that informal contacts are important in order to obtain official papers – close to the highest level in the surveyed countries.” The report further notes that “the overall level of satisfaction with public service delivery is now the third lowest in the region.” Additionally, the 2011 report of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions report on Macedonia asserts that the country is characterized by distrust in institutions and might need to address transparency.

What this evidence reveals is that the approach used by the authorities in improving the quality of public services is not sufficiently serious and consistent. Having a well-drafted Code of Ethics or a proper infrastructure in place is simply not enough. As the Ethics Resource Center Report (2006), notes, “actions speak louder than words. Having a general organization wide ethics communication strategy is not enough to create desired outcomes. Employees need to see their superiors and peers demonstrate ethical behavior in the work they do and decisions they make every day.” With all the negative remarks on the public service delivery presented above, the room for claiming that Code of Ethics has a “share” in the improvement of the public services and that it makes an expected impact is shrunk to the point of considering it trivial.

What has gone wrong?
The paradoxical situation of investing a large amount of funds in public service delivery infrastructure on one side; and the noted “unchanged negative attitude” of the citizens toward public services on the other, clearly displaces the problem to a different component: that of ethics and moral principles of civil servants. Precisely said, the authorities should shift their focus toward building capacities and changing the mindset of a major part of civil servants. The target group should include all the civil servants with a low performance and inappropriate behavior in their communication with the citizens. empowers the traditional aversion of citizens against state institutions.

The adoption of the Code of Ethics has been praised as a step forward in establishing efficient ties between the Civil Service and its clients. However, the fact that general ethics principles or the Code of Ethics for Civil Servants are not included in the Civil Service Entry Exams in Macedonia indicates that the document lacks the sufficient attention from the very initial contact of the candidates with the Civil Service.
Were they thoroughly included in the exam preparatory materials and the exam itself, the mental perception of potential Civil Servants in regards to the importance of the decent implementation of the Code of Ethics would be largely affirmative. The current practice shows that candidates applying for job positions in the Civil Service learn about the existence of the Code of Ethics only after they get to commence with the job. Moreover, introducing them with the Code of Ethics is rather done in a “ceremonial” and formal way.

The minor attention and importance attached to the Codes of Ethics is clearly witnessed through the 2011 Annual Program of Generic Trainings for the Civil Servants published by the Ministry of Information Society and Administration. Namely, out of 84 training events organized during the course of 2010, only 5 of them are to a certain extent related to the Code of Ethics. Trainings that are firmly related to the Code of Ethics itself, to its proper implementation, as well as to make them aware of the guidance Code of Ethics provides in executing their daily tasks and obligations are not included in the trainings annual plan.

**Conclusion**

Since its adoption in 2001, the role of the Code of Ethics for Civil Servants in the advancement of the public services is trivial. As the paper argued, the overall progress of Macedonia in its public service delivery is two-dimensional: (1) praised in regards to the modernization of service delivery infrastructure; and (2) largely criticized in relation to establishing trustworthy rapport between the civil service and the citizens. As the latter falls directly under the scope of the Code of Ethics, it impliedly illustrates the inability of the Code of Ethics to make an impact in the public service delivery throughout the 10 year period since its adoption.

As illuminated through the Life in Transition Report as well as through the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, Macedonian citizens are to a large extent unsatisfied with the public services they receive. Hence, it is simple and logical to conclude that factors that are supposed to aid the development of a modern and citizens’-centered Civil Service, referring to the Code of Ethics as a key factor, are falling short to make an impact. Nevertheless, the provided justifications for this failure are clearly in line with the warnings of the authors dealing extensively with adoption and implementation of Codes of Ethics documents. Apparently, the Code of Ethics for Civil Servants in Macedonia throughout the past 10-year period is not being viewed as a living document. Thus, in cases when Codes of Ethics are not viewed as living documents, Donald C. Menzel...
Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences, Vol. 5, No. 1

(2007) would assert that they may become little more than a nicely framed ornament that adorns office walls and glitters in the agency’s literature. Consequently, the Code of Ethics for Civil Servants in Macedonia is nothing more than a décor that decorates office walls.

Resources


Carol W. Lewis, Stuart C. Gilman, “The ethics challenge in public service: a problem-solving guide” (2005);


H. George Frederickson, “Ethics and Public Administration”, (1993);

Howard Whitton, Transparency International, “Implementing Effective Ethics Standards in Government and the Civil Service”, (2001);

Menzel, Donald C. “Ethics Management for Public Administrators: Building Organizations of Integrity” (2007);

Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, Civil Servants Act, No. 07-3288/1, (2000);

Stuart C. Gilman, the World Bank Washington, DC, “Ethics Codes and Codes of Conduct as Tools for Promoting an Ethical and Professional Public Service: Comparative Successes and Lessons”, (2005);


GLOBALIZATION INFLUENCES STRATEGIC CHANGES AND MOVEMENTS

Dragan Kesič

Abstract
The aim of this paper is to evaluate and present the development of world pharmaceutical industry in the last several years. According to our research, we may emphasize that this industrial sector has been strategically changing and has been steadily concentrating and consolidating in the last decade. We may underline that intensive consolidation of world pharmaceutical industry is quite a complex process, having been driven by several factors and conditioned mostly by some defines strategic issues. We may conclude that further globalization, concentration and consolidation processes of world pharmaceutical industry are to be foreseen.

Key words: pharmaceutical industry, globalization, consolidation, strategic issues

Introduction
We may describe the most important characteristics of world pharmaceutical industry as following ones:

- increased globalization,
- changing structure of competition and increased competitiveness,
- lack of new products, despite increased investments into R&D (Research & Development) activities,
- increased importance of regulatory issues (registrations, intellectual property rights, litigations),
- fast consolidation and concentration of the world pharmaceutical industry,
- increased importance of strategic elements and strategic management,
- ageing of world population and opening up of some new therapeutic fields.

World pharmaceutical market has undergone fast, unprecedented, tremendous and complex changes in the last several years. We may say that pharmaceutical industry has been adapting itself more to the market trends and market demands. Further strategic development of the world

---

1 dr. Dragan Kesič, Associate Professor, University of Primorska, Faculty of Management Koper, Slovenia; dragan.kesic@fm-kp.si
pharmaceutical industry shows relatively clearly its significant consolidation and concentration and strong market orientation. Pharmaceutical industry today probably unite the biggest of all mankind potentials. Development of brand new drug is today estimated to need investment over 1.2 billion $ and takes over 12 years to bring it as a finished, legally registered and approved product to a market place (Pharma Strategy Group, 2007:43, World Review, 2009:56). This is at the same time very complex, comprehensive and highly risky job with no final guarantee that a new product might succeed onto the market and bring revenues back. If a pharmaceutical company wants to achieve with a brand new product the market success, it needs to invest heavily into marketing and sales activities. Thus is by no surprise as we may conclude that basic research and development activities (R&D) together with marketing and sales activities are two the most important operative and even more strategic activities of the world pharmaceutical industry. Here the biggest investments of the pharmaceutical industry are poured by all means. Having analysed these figures, we have found that the biggest, inventive pharmaceutical companies invest on average around 16% of their sales into R&D and even more, around 25% or even more, into marketing and sales activities (Kesić, 2006:22). However, these ratios, especially these for R&D investments, are even higher with specialists, like biotechnology and pharmacogenomic pharmaceutical companies, and much lower with generic pharmaceutical companies (Kesić, 2006:28). As mentioned, world pharmaceutical industry is structurally not unique, as pharmaceutical companies differ according to their basic performance, vision and strategic development. We may define three different groups of the world pharmaceutical companies:

- pharmaceutical companies which primarily work on basic research, development and marketing and sales of brand new, inventive, original pharmaceutical products (so called originators),
- pharmaceutical companies which primarily work on development and sales of generic products (so called generic or copycat producers),
- pharmaceutical companies which primarily work on basic research and development of biotechnology and pharmacogenomic products and technologies of new delivery systems (so called specialists).

We may emphasize that products are by no means the main drivers for growth of the world pharmaceutical industry. Pharmaceutical companies strongly compete on products' characteristics and tend to invest heavily into marketing activities in endeavour to gain prescribers/patients loyalty and to compete as well directly with other pharmaceutical companies.
Table 1: Leading world pharmaceutical companies in 2009*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Country of origin</th>
<th>Sales in billion $</th>
<th>World market share in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Pfizer</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Sanofi-aventis</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>GlaxoSmithKline</td>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Roche</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>AstraZeneca</td>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Novartis</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Merck&amp;Co.</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Johnson&amp;Johnson</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>E.Lilly</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Abbott</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* - according to consolidated sales of pharmaceuticals and vaccines

Source: adapted from the companies' official published reports

The leading ten world pharmaceutical companies currently command over 42 % market share of the global pharmaceutical market. For a comparison, this figure was only 30 % ten years ago. This is quite a significant mark and proof as well how intensive market consolidation and concentration of world pharmaceutical industry has changed world pharmaceutical market in the last several years.

The world pharmaceutical industry has undergone deep changes in the last decade. Most notably, the strong process of consolidation and concentration has been going on, practically in all three defined pharmaceutical sectors; numerous mergers and acquisitions have occurred, resulting in the forming of complete new companies, respectively. We may argue that competitiveness in the world pharmaceutical industry has been increasing tremendously.

We may forecast that, taking into account the mentioned factors, further consolidation and concentration of the world pharmaceutical industry is realistically expected. We may foresee a formation of even bigger pharmaceutical concerns in all three sectors of the pharmaceutical industry. Alongside, further lack of brand new products is expected with highly increased competitiveness and a furious fight for market shares and global customers' loyalty.

Research objectives
We aim trying to find out which strategic objectives and factors are the most important reasons for the fast concentration and consolidation for the pharmaceutical industry. We would like to evaluate how decisive are the most important strategic elements which influence a strong consolidation process of the world pharmaceutical industry, thus we pose the following two hypotheses:

H1: Pharmaceutical industry has been concentrating due to several factors, like globalization trends, increased competitiveness and consolidation processes
H2: Concentration has been going on in all groups of pharmaceutical companies

**Globalization in the world pharmaceutical industry**

We can underline that globalization is almost a synonym for a modern economy. Nowadays the global competition is mostly based on the knowledge and technology and ability to serve the customers properly, swiftly and repeatedly. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development OECD defines globalization as "Spreading and deepening of companies' performance with the target to produce and sell goods or services on multiple markets (OECD,1993:73)". Later definition of globalization from OECD (OECD, 1994:55) says that "More precisely we may define globalization as a developing pattern of international business cooperation, which includes investments, trade and contractor ways of cooperation, and targets the development of products, production, procurement and marketing. Such kind of international performance enables the companies to conquer new markets, use their technological and organisational advantages and to lower the costs and risks." Globalization is thus strongly related with the increased mobility and competition. The most active subjects of the globalization process are transnational or multinational corporations. We may stipulate that the following characteristics are significant for their performance, especially if we take into consideration the multinational pharmaceutical companies:

- multinational pharmaceutical companies have had a strong market position on the most important and strategic world markets with holding of considerable market shares,
- they globally integrate and connect their business performance, so national identity is no longer important,
- they perform a flexible purchasing management strategy,
- have had a global network structure of production,
• have had a global network organisation of research and development activities,
• have built a global marketing organisation structure which supports a dedicated market orientation and a strategic priority focus to customers.

We may even emphasize that the globalization is in its core meaning a complex, market conditioned world process, which is related and driven by a whole palette of elements of marketing way of thinking and performing, sudden, fast changes and ever-changing ways of doing business, alongside an increasing competition and competitiveness, in a strive to optimally identify changing needs of the world customers and to ability to satisfy their long-term needs. We may say that it is very important to have in mind to know how to detect the needs of customers and how to satisfy them on a long-term basis. We may emphasize as well that the customers should be treated as the most precious value of a company. This is a way we underline that the globalisation is a market driven process. Thus in a process of the globalization it is core to be fast, to be strongly market oriented, to have loyal customers, to be innovative, to have proper knowledge, to be able to learn fast, to have proper information and to take quick decisions. Drucker (Drucker, 1992:86) mentioned five the most important elements of development which would influence greatly the strategies, structure and performance of future companies:
• "Economic relations would be performed in the direction among trade blocs instead of countries,
• business performance would be more and more matter of strategic alliancing, which would be integrated into a world economy,
• restructuring of business would be intensifying and more globalising, it would be important to have information and knowledge,
• strategic management of companies would be decisive for a competitive success,
• intensive market orientation of companies would be a core advantage for achieving a competitive advantage over competitors ".

We may underline that world pharmaceutical industry has been in the intensive processes of concentration and consolidation for a period of over last 15 years. We may argue that research & development, besides marketing and sales activities are two the most important and strategic priorities of pharmaceutical companies and into which the greatest part of funds having been invested as well. According to our research, we may say that the most important strategic reasons for the intensive consolidation processes of world pharmaceutical industry, are the following:
Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences, Vol. 5, No. 1

- fast globalization processes of world economy,
- lack of new products to drive sales growth further,
- big investments needed for R&D activities,
- global marketing and sales activities which need considerable investments as well,
- increased competitiveness,
- changed structure of the competitors,
- world reforms of the healthcare systems,
- increased importance of the regulatory issues (registrations, intellectual property rights, litigations).

According to our research study and findings, there have been more than 10,000 various alliances formed in the world pharmaceutical industry in the last decade (Datamonitor, 2005: 67). We have found out the consolidation processes have been carried out practically in all three sectors (inventive - original pharmaceutical companies, generic producers and specialists) of the world pharmaceutical industry. The concentration process has practically created brand new pharmaceutical players; however some previously well-known pharmaceutical firms have practically disappeared from the global market scenery. For example, the world leading pharmaceutical company Pfizer has been created from 6 big international players, including Pfizer itself, Warner Lambert, Upjohn, Searle and Pharmacia, and Wyeth, respectively. We may argue as well that the world pharmaceutical industry has become more and more oligopolistic indeed. We may entirely agree with Knickerbrocker theory of oligopolistic reaction (Knickerbrocker, 1973:69) which says, that "Oligopolistic companies, as minimizators of taking risks in avoidance of destroying effects of competition follow each other to new markets to protect their own interests. It is significant that the action of one player creates a reaction of the other competitors, an action creates a reaction and so the story of oligopolisation is going on." We may conclude that Knickerbrocker's theory perfectly illustrates and explains a consolidation process of the world pharmaceutical industry. Consolidation processes are continuing to speed up as the pharmaceutical companies try to follow their competitors' strategy of M&A (Mergers and Acquisitions) in endeavor to maintain their global market position and a long-term competitiveness.

It is thus evident that some stand-alone pharmaceutical companies are not able to satisfy long-term and ever-changing market needs and customers' expectations, to invest heavily into R&D and marketing activities in endeavor to bring new products to global markets and materialize them properly. We can argue that this process enables
pharmaceutical company’s new development circles and their long-term development and growth. Formation of partnerships for a sake of the maintaining long-term competitiveness is today one of the most usable strategies in the world pharmaceutical industry. We may argue that pharmaceutical companies make alliances in endeavors to create common synergies and to better exploit their common assets, knowledge, product life cycles and moreover to upgrade marketing management strategies. Thus we may argue that the most important and strategic activities of creating common strategies for the pharmaceutical companies are:

- research and development (R&D), due to creating of brand new products,
- products, due to drive the sales growth and gain market shares,
- markets, due to create geographic and market expansion,
- marketing and sales, due to enforce marketing and sales activities to compete on the global markets and to drive further sales growth.

We may say as well that due to a complexity in the pharmaceutical industry it is not unusual at all the pharmaceutical companies even tend to form some partnerships and to compete at the same time. They can cooperate on some defined projects (for example R&D projects), however they compete strongly for particular market shares. We may define this is so called "C and C phenomena" as we may even call it "Co-opetition" (cooperation and competition at the same time) (Zineldin, 2004:45).

Pharmaceutical companies tend to internationalize and globalise their business activities sooner as in the past due to a market liberalisation, increased competitiveness and a need to reach considerable economies of scale.
Table 2: Overview of some alliances in 2006, 2007, 2008 and 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target - taken-over company</th>
<th>Acquirer</th>
<th>Creating of synergies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schering AG, Germany</td>
<td>Bayer, Germany</td>
<td>R&amp;D, markets, marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serono, Switzerland</td>
<td>Merck KGaA, Germany</td>
<td>R&amp;D, markets, marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schwarz Pharma, Germany</td>
<td>UCB, Belgium</td>
<td>R&amp;D, products, markets, marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altana Pharma, Germany</td>
<td>Nycomed, Denmark</td>
<td>R&amp;D, markets, products, marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kos Pharmaceuticals, USA</td>
<td>Abbott, USA</td>
<td>R&amp;D, products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organon BioSciences, the Netherlands</td>
<td>Schering-Plough, USA</td>
<td>R&amp;D, markets, products, marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MedImmune, USA</td>
<td>AstraZeneca, UK</td>
<td>R&amp;D, markets, products (vaccines), marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merck Generics, Germany</td>
<td>Mylan, USA</td>
<td>markets, products, sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyeth, USA</td>
<td>Pfizer, USA</td>
<td>R&amp;D, markets, products, marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genentech, USA</td>
<td>Roche, Switzerland</td>
<td>R&amp;D, markets, products, marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schering-Plough, USA</td>
<td>Merck&amp;Co., USA</td>
<td>R&amp;D, markets, products, marketing&amp;sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orchid Chemicals&amp;Pharmaceuticals, India</td>
<td>Hospira, USA</td>
<td>products, markets, sales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ratiopharm, Germany</td>
<td>Teva, Israel</td>
<td>expand to European and world generic markets, products, sales</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from the companies' official published data

According to that Svetličič (Svetličič, 1996:59) stipulates that "Modern ways of the internationalisation with an aid of network formation and strategic alliances enable internationalisation without a growth of the companies. Today companies decide for internationalisation and alliances due to:
- be closer to customers,
- increase effectiveness,
- gain a better access to technologies and knowledge (know-how),
- protect them from competitors (strategic reasons)".
Strategic elements in world pharmaceutical industry
World guru of management Drucker, who especially emphasized a core importance of the marketing way of thinking and marketing management for a successful, long-term highly competitive business performance of the companies, has said (Drucker, 1993:69) about globalization and globalization management the following properly: "In the future, there will be two types of top managers: those who would be able to think globally with a strong marketing management commitment and those jobless". Marketing-global way of thinking, performance and management thus enables companies to put customers into the centre of all their business activities, and integrally focusing all business activities to a common and final goal – to be successful in satisfying customers’ needs and to be better than competitors. It is worth to underline as well the importance of innovative management and the management of changes. As Bartlett and Ghosal underlined (Bartlett, Ghosal, 1989 : 79), "Successful companies of today and tomorrow will be those ones, who would be able at the same time to satisfy local needs, increase global effectiveness and strive for a constant innovativeness and concomittant global learning".

It comes as a no surprise to us that successful companies, and they will be successful in the future as well with this strategic management practices, know how to satisfy their focused customers. We may even say that in a certain way concept of the strategic management clearly designates a company's business philosophy. We may entirely agree with Corstjens' estimation (Corstjens, 1991:55) that "Sector of the pharmaceutical industry, despite being very specific in the all aspects, is an ideal case, how a practice and usage of the marketing management concept directly relates to a very successful business performance of this industrial sector".

According to our research work, we found out that the most important strategic reasons of creating common synergies for pharmaceutical companies are the following ones:

- research and development (R&D), due to creating of new products which form a sound base for further growth, development and competitiveness,
- products, due to driving sales growth and gain market shares,
- markets, due to creating geographic and market expansion,
- marketing and sales, due to enforcing marketing and sales activities to compete on global markets and to drive further sales growth.
These are, according to our researching, the most important reasons for strategic and increased consolidation development trends in world pharmaceutical industry.

Findings and conclusions
The purpose of paper is to analyse which strategic issues are the most important for a considerable consolidation of world pharmaceutical industry. We have used a sum of public available data and information, predominantly on the business performance of world pharmaceutical industry, and the development trends within the pharmaceutical industry in our research work and we have found out that world pharmaceutical industry has been strongly concentrating and consolidating in the last years. We can say that two hypothesis raised at the beginning of our research can be confirmed. We provide empirical evidence that the intensive processes of concentration and consolidation have been continuing in all three sectors of world pharmaceutical industry. In aim to define these strategic changes clearly we have analysed in details the trends in world pharmaceutical industry. We may underline that intensive consolidation of world pharmaceutical industry is quite a complex process, having been driven by several factors and conditioned mostly by some defined strategic issues. We have found out that intensive globalization process has been definitively influencing and reinforcing a strong consolidation of world pharmaceutical industry. Further on, we may argue that increased competitiveness and amended structure of competitors which is conditioned by a merger and acquisition process, impact a strategic orientation of the particular world pharmaceutical companies. We have found out in our research survey that mergers and acquisitions prevail more and more as a viable strategic orientation for the world pharmaceutical companies. Further on, we may conclude that a fast consolidation of world pharmaceutical industry is definitively conditioned upon by several strategic reasons, like a lack of new products, an increased and fierce competitiveness, a fast globalization, a changed structure of competitors, and a tremendous fight for global market shares and customers' loyalty. We may argue that defined and stipulated strategic management issues are going to play even more important role in future globalization and concentration processes of world pharmaceutical industry which we may foresee to be intensively continued.
References


OECD, (1993), Special Issue on Globalization, Paris: STI Review No.13, December


Scrip Reports, (2003), Where is the Pharma Industry Going?, London: PJB Publications Ltd.

Svetličič M., (1996), Svetovno podjetje, Ljubljana: Znanstveno in publicistično srediste,


Used web sites:
5. www.gsk.com (Accessed 22nd of November 2011)
SECURITY CULTURE IMPACT ON SECURITY EXCELLENCE IN A COMPANY

Milan Ambrož

Abstract
Awareness and behavior of organizational members is the outcome of the strong, completed and standards supported security culture. A major challenge for the current organization is to promote organizational members to take security responsibly. This paper examines the impact of security culture characteristics on the behavior of organizational members regarding security. My prediction was that the open purpose of the company and its reliability had a significant impact on collective actions regarding security. Additionally, appropriate security culture in a company is the real guarantee for the secure actions of employees. The results of my study support the hypothesis that security culture differentiates between different companies and increases positive behavior of employees towards the security excellence. However, I have found evidence that adaptability and involvement traits of the security culture in our study do not significantly affect the excellence in security behaviour.

I recommend that managers should require employees in the operational security problem solving and continuously and publicly express contemporary and predicted security threats. As a result, reliable preventative actions will come and support the excellence of a company and the quality of the life of all company stakeholders.

Keywords: culture, behaviour, awareness, mission, adaptability, traits, excellence.

Introduction
Safety and security become one of the key business problems for managers of modern organizations. Fraudulent behavior on all management levels and all kinds of trust and security breaches distress and often restrict or destroy business activities. Organization’s legitimacy is often under attack. All kinds of different schemes appear that are used to evaluate misuse of company’s assets. Such behaviour has to be seriously considered.

1 Milan Ambrož, PhD is an Associate professor at Faculty of organization studies Novo mesto, Slovenia
Additionally, high pressure of competitive business environment endangers the power of many organizations and a need for a comprehensive security policy, including local and external security are an essential. All kinds of security breaches provoke negative security awareness. They are the basis for the creation of non-integrative view of an organization in the eyes of the employees and customers. Besides, all stakeholders have high expectations regarding security and legitimacy of the business, and security is becoming part of overall efficiency of the organization (Timonen et al 2009). Cumulatively, these factors can have a detrimental effect on a company and its customers and clients. Riughaver et al (2007) and Jiang (2009) prove this statement. They argue that security is a crucial success determining factor in all businesses in the future, especially in high-risk ones.

The aim of this paper is to determine the nature of employees’ security behavior in the organization. Relatively little attention has been directed towards how a security culture affects organizational unit's existing security behavior in a management and business environment. I hypothesise that organizational behavior factors contribute to the variety of workplace behavior that adheres to corporate policies and regulations. Further, I suppose that these factors have a positive impact on intentions of company members to behave securely.

**Security culture and company excellence**

Wiegmann et al. (2002) understand the culture phenomenon in the company through three different perspectives. Sociological perspective highlights heroes, social drama, and rituals manifested in the shared values, norms, and meanings of groups (Deal and Kennedy, 1983; Mearns et al 2003). Anthropological perspective assumes that culture is an emergent property of the organization, generated by its unique history and individual members (Smircich, 1983). In contrast, organizational psychology interpretation defines culture as the values and beliefs that organization members share through symbolic resources such as myths, stories, legends and specialized language (Smircich, 1983). It tends to emphasize its functional role and its impact on the organization productivity (Schein, 1985). Wiegmann (2002) assumes culture as a provider of a conceptual relationship between organizational behavior and management interests. Social identity theory reveals that company members are influenced by the plethora of cultures (Straub et al, 2002).

Security problems are complex and unpredictable. According to Chia, Maynard, and Ruighaver, (2003) security system is one of the systems to be supported by management’s beliefs and actions. Leach (2003)
reports that as many as 80% of serious security failures in Australian companies could be the result of poor security behavior of organizational members. Many organizations still focus exclusively on regulations to submit to minimum standards and whistle-blowing. Such manner obscures the main objectives of integrity (Herath and Rao, 2009). Wagner and Brooke (2007) discuss that the conventional understanding of community that supervises everything has to vanish. Presented empirical evidence leads the development of more proactive and holistic approach to security in a company that makes moral values, individual, shared responsibility, and integrity more precise (Dempsey, 2005). Supervising authority should be delegated to the individual. Chia et al (2003) agrees that the concept of security culture is not fully defined and can be viewed from different points of view generated by different subcultures. Some researchers of organizational culture explain it as a foundation of shared beliefs and assumptions about the way business is done in a company. Security aspect of it reflects the values and beliefs of safety and security. Moreover, security and safety values and beliefs are the basis of security norms and rules that govern the behavior of individuals, groups, or the company (Denison, 2007; Greene and D’Arcy, 2010).

Organizational culture is an emergent and recreated experience as members regularly present and communicate in ways, which seem to them to be natural’, clear and unambiguous. Considering this fact, Schlienger and Teufel (2002) argue that security culture is embedded in organizational culture. It is considered to be the general assumption that is changing over time. They argue that it can be designed and changed by the management of an organization. Similar findings were concluded by Bukovec (2009) using different organizational excellence models to implement changes in organizations. In contrast, Detert et al (2000) linked organizational culture to a comprehensive set of values and beliefs that constitute the culture nature’ of Total Quality Management. His method consists of eight overarching dimensions that describe the nature of organizational culture. Joo et al (2009) used these dimensions to create a source of security information culture. Da Veiga and Eloff (2010) developed the Information Security Culture Framework. This format is useful in assessing information security in a company.

Starting from this definition, I decided that traits approach is the most suited to my review of security culture. Two of the culture characteristics, collaboration and adaptability, are indicators of flexibility, openness, and responsiveness. They predict growth potential of an organization. The other two characteristics, support and commitment, are indicators of integration, directive, and vision. They are predictors of profitability
Security excellence in a company is based on cooperation and flexibility of employees’ actions, and their courage and commitment to security and safety. Additionally, security can be maintained by collaborative involvement of organizational members in the security policy and proven adaptability of all stakeholders to the security threats.

**Security as a basis of a protective behaviour**

Purpose is the most prominent feature of the security culture in an organization. It links structure behavior and goals of the organization. Security purpose consists of formalized information and standardization, certification and evaluation, and it is information about the barrier of concrete and especially information assets. Moreover, it includes organizations member’s status, ingenuity and skill in the nature of mental models about security issues. Purpose is the articulation of goals, vision, and strategic direction. Besides, it serves to determine the magnitude of a company and capacity to manage risks and security threats (Pidgeon, 2001). Purpose is aimed to provide security for all stakeholders in the business process, including local, national, and the international. Denison (2007) is convinced that governing a company’s purpose clarifies company’s goals and projects company’s future existence.

Based on the study of organizational culture studies, I identified the following sense of security culture that indicates the relationship of the company to its environment: adaptability to security threats. Lawrence and Lorch (1967) determine the relationship between the extent to which the states of differentiation and integration in the company are compatible to its success. Adaptable organizations do exist and are successful (Denison and Mishra, 1995). They are learning organizations. They continually learn from mistakes, involve risks and do change and growth (Hurst, 1995: 118; Charan, 2004: 161; Coimbra, 2009: 35). Constant pressures to change often negatively affect security. Implementing of reengineering, downsizing, outsourcing and other relief frameworks usually diminishes the sense of security in an organization (Hammer and Champy 1993; Hickok, 1998). Changes in the company certainly modify the security awareness. Culture of fear is often the result of it (Furedi, 2002: 2). Nevertheless, it is necessary for the management of the company to monitor the security threats in internal and external environment and convert them to security regulations and actions. Management has to develop a security policy of network monitoring (Greene and D'Arcy, 2010). In such a manner, management conveys the organizational members and other stakeholders that the company is serious about security (Straub, 1990).
The most valuable asset of the company is employees. They create and manage the company’s assets, products, and services. The empirical evidence of Spreitzer (1990), Ambrož (2004), and Denison (2007), has demonstrated that effective organizations provide conditions that empower and improve their employees, and continually strengthen their capacity. Successful organizations provide conditions that enable organizational members. Moreover, empowerment is a process in which an individual enables himself to take effect and management tasks and autonomous decision-making. It is closely linked to the involvement as a work-style characteristic that motivates responsible behaviour. Further, company members feel that they are involved when they can apply to their work and have a strong sense of ownership (Denison, 2007). Organizational members are involved, when they are empowered and can exercise initiative, authority, and ability to manage their own work.

It is particularly noteworthy that organizational members have enough security authority to act and prevent the security breach. This authority includes the right to analyze and to discuss the activities that caused it (Kruger and Kearney, 2006). The initiative to be involved in security issues corresponds to the degree of fulfilled expectations of organizational members. When a contribution of everyone to security in a company is valued, the security will be taken seriously (Weick and Sutcliffe, 2001: 123).

Employees, however, can be a vulnerability to their company’s security. If they don’t know how to act in a secure manner, they will fail to correspond to security breaches (Hubbard, 2002). Organizations are security operative when they are consistent internally controlled, and fully integrated. Consistent organizations create unique system of governance based on consensus (Denison, 2007). Shuchih et al (2007) analysed the impact of organizational culture characteristics on the effectiveness of security activities in a company. Results of the research show that energy and reliability have a significant impact on information security management. On the other hand, traits cooperation and innovativeness are not significantly associated with it. Only cooperativeness has a significant and negative correlation to confidentiality, which is the essence of security culture. Thomson et al (2006) argues that integration of security into the organizational culture is a fact and is based on the consistent behavior of employees. Security consistency is usually achieved by common agreement on risks and dangers. The quality of the agreement is based on the logical and reasonable doubt in cooperative security activities.
Weill and Ross (2004) argue that open reporting of security problems to the management of a company is successful. It even creates new opportunities for more effective security governance. It could be established through more collaborative opportunities between the business professionals and management and defined technical decisions. Brown and Nasuti (2005) found out that in organizations with the most effective IT governance, IT decisions are shared by all stakeholders. Security consistency is usually achieved by collective agreement on risks and threats, and the quality of the agreement is based on the consistent and reasonable doubt in everyday security activities.

**Security excellence and governance**

Recently, many disastrous events led to the development proactive and complex concepts in the field of security. One of them is a security culture, which is a complex and challenging project because there are no mutually agreed visible signs, practices and images, values and basic assumptions that define it (Kuusisto and Ilvonen, 2003). Greene and D’Arcy (2010) argue that the quality of a security culture lies in the assumptions and beliefs that drive the organizational members’ behaviour. Their research shows that security customs and job satisfaction lead to promote collective security behavior intentions. However, Solms and Solms (2004) and Vroom and Solms (2004) analysis revealed that information system security advocates have suggested that organizations can modify user behavior by cultivating a security culture that promotes security-conscious decision-making and adherence to security policy. For security culture, in particular, and in a functional sense, it is believed to be a significant predictor of security performance, which impacts the overall performance of the organization (Cox and Flin 1998: 189; Javidan, 2004). The level of security performance in the company varies and is dependent upon the extent to which the values promote it (Wiegmann et al., 2002: 5). If the core values and norms about the security are committed, employees internalize them. Moreover, they reinforce the notion of individual and collective security. This is the point where performance is embedded reflecting core beliefs, which are based on need, feasibility and effectiveness of controls.

These conclusions and reports findings led us to the proposition that the security culture fosters security responsible behavior of employees:

H1: The security culture positively impacts the security excellence of the company.
Methodology

Sample

Respondents in our research were from Slovenian public, logistics and one manufacturing company. We deployed 180 questionnaires, and 157 were returned and used in the analysis. The response rate was 95%. Participants completed questionnaire containing questions about the security culture and its impact on security behavior of employees. Participants administered the questionnaires freely and anonymously. It is reasonable to assume that organizational members have been exposed to security issues in their organization, because their organizations emphasized the importance of incorporating security behavior to all business activities. Table 1 below summarizes the characteristics of the respondents and their organizations.

Table 1: Sample description data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>64 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>36 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>average age</td>
<td>39.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>range of age in years</td>
<td>21-64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.28 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>school</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22.30 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>high school</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.11 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>college</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.11 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>faculty</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>36.30 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>master</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.91 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>public sector</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>42.67 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>industry</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10.82 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>logistics</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>46.50 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instrument

Talking to employees about the security is a difficult task. They avoid such interviews because they think that some personal information would be revealed to the unauthorized persons. So we turned to the questionnaire that has been administered in different organizations from a business and social sphere. By questioning the employees, we gained some insight as to how they integrated their security awareness cognitions in the patterns of change behaviours. The means for our analysis based on the organizational culture traits developed by Denison (1990, 2007). As argued by Denison et al (2006) confirming the traits of organizational culture requires the use of a questionnaire, which contents the five groups of questions that we believe constitute a full understanding of cultural traits and security behavior: (a) mission (b)
adaptability (c) involvement (d) security excellence, and (e) awareness. Participants fulfilled questionnaires using Likert-type scale ranging from (1 = totally agree) to (totally disagree = 5).

Analysis of results
My research has produced some significant findings, which we hope will contribute to the literature in this area of inquiry. The empirical findings are discussed below.

Factor analysis

Table 2 shows the results of subjecting the material to principal component factor analysis with Varimax normalized as a technique of rotation to establish content validity of the a-priori dimensions. Specifying five factors were found to have produced the most interpretable results and explained 52.98 % of the total variance.
Table 2: Security culture characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Security culture characteristics</th>
<th>Mission</th>
<th>Adaptability</th>
<th>Involvement</th>
<th>Excellence</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>Cronbach's alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The processes in our organization are transparent enough and can be predicted.</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational members in our organization report hidden mistakes which could trigger severe consequences.</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the organization, we often thoroughly analyse problems to understand them better.</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational members in the organization are stimulated to share different opinions.</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We value organizational members in the company that are skeptical and don’t believe everything that is told to them.</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a person in the company that has an authority and the power to support our decisions to solve suddenly emerging problems.</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational members in our organization know the activities in the neighboring processes exceptionally well.</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers in our organization continuously monitor workload and employ extra sources to reduce it when it is necessary.</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The members in our organization respect differences in personalities.</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge is in our organization is more appreciated that status in the company hierarchy.</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional help in our organization is available when we are confronted with the problem that cannot be solved.</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working tasks in our organization follow substantial and timely progression.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All procedures of the working process in an organization can be directly observed.</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working processes in our organization can be stopped. Products can be warehoused and services held and yet there is no harm done.</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are various ways to produce our products or services in our organization. Planning of production or services is changing.</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security culture characteristics</td>
<td>Mission</td>
<td>Adaptable</td>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>Excellence</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees in our company do not have enough authority to act when unpredictable events occur or when our company is in danger.</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When an unexpected event occurs in our company, we usually pay attention to the causes.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When activities do not follow the plan in our organization, employees rarely try to find out what is the cause of it.</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To verify whether hypotheses can be accepted, is not the common procedure in our organization.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees in our company rarely discuss concrete security problems.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is common in our company that we fulfill all expectations of our customers.</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is known that our company respects ethical business.</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our company has clearly defined security politics.</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is evident for our company that it has a clearly defined security rules that are active and operational.</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is common in our company that employees are capable of taking care of the safety of the organization.</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is common for our company that employees actively, flexibly, and effectively secure the company information.</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is known that our company business is secure and stable.</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is obvious, what are the contents of safe and secure behaviour in organization.</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It happens in our company that some security and safety measures are abandoned for the sake of customer satisfaction with the company.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We spend a lot of time in our organization considering how our activities might harm our company, stakeholders, partners, and customers.</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a firm agreement in our organization what cannot go wrong.</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a firm agreement in our organization what could go wrong.</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational members in our company do not believe everything what they see and hear.</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is an enormous effort in our organization to produce quality work.</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The hidden dimensions showing in Table 3 extracted by principal components factor analysis demonstrated adequate reliability of dimensions. It is ranged from satisfactory to excellent, except for the dimension Adaptability to security threats.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Cronbach’s Alfa reliability of factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Security mission of the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability to security threats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security awareness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first factor, ‘Security mission of the organization’, explained the 30.18% of variance. It is obvious that the sharing of different opinions and information about business processes could enhance the security awareness of employees.

The second factor ‘Adaptability to security threats’ explained the 6.82% of variance. When there are different ways to provide products or services and the company is growth oriented, it is flexible enough to adapt to security threats. Additionally, when all procedures of working processes are directly monitored, they can be stopped and continuously improved. Damage from future security threats can be avoided.

The third factor ‘Involvement of employees’, explained 5.86% of variance and deals with unexpected events that occur in the organization. Participants in the survey pay attention to the activities that caused unexpected events. When activities do not correspond to the plan, participants in the analysis always try to find out what is the purpose of it. It is the normal procedure in the institution to verify whether the hypotheses about the causes that produced deviation from the system are authorized.

The fourth factor, ‘Security excellence’, explained 5.59% of variance, encompassed many aspects behaviour that strengthens the security of a company and fulfils the expectations of company’s customers. It shows that a company has clearly defined security rules that are actively followed. Additionally, it shows that organizational members engagingly and effectively protect the data in an organization. Companies participating in the study create well defined security system with defined goals what to protect, and ethical standards how to do it.

The last, fifth factor, ‘Awareness’, explained 4.54% of variance. It attempts to respond to the question: “What could and what could not go
wrong in the organization, and to the considerations how the activities of the company’s members can damage the organization?” The factor confirms that behavior change is partly based on the reasonable doubt of the members in everything what they see and now. Participants in the study believe that consistency is the result of their tremendous power to produce quality work.

To see if the factor analysis for our example from Table 2 is just, we ran The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) degree of sampling adequacy. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin provides an indication (between 0 and 1) of the proportion of variation among the variables that might be accepted variance. This variance can be seen as a measure of underlying or potential common factors. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin near 1 indicates the obvious choice to use factor analysis, and KMO less than 0.5 indicates that factor analysis is a not proper procedure to reducing the number of variables. According to Kaiser Index, the results of our example in Table 4 show that factors research is commendable (KMO = .869).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: The results of the sample adequacy in the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's test of Sphericity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Regression analysis**

In order to verify the validity of impact of security culture on company employees’ submissive behavior, this study uses the Weighted Least Squares Multiple Regression analysis as its research methodology. The objective of regression analysis was to determine the extent to which security values can predict the strength cooperative behavior of organizational members. In order to investigate this effect, we constructed the model presented in Figure1.
Compliant behaviour of employees was used as a dependent variable in the model. Security culture traits named: (1) mission, (2) adaptability, (3) involvement, and (4) consistency, were used as independent variables in the regression model. ‘Company type’ was added as weighted variable.

As indicated in a Table 5, regression model explains 51.3% of the variance. Traits: ‘Mission’ and ‘Awareness’ show statistically significant relationships with dependent variable. Traits ‘Adaptability’ and ‘Involvement’ dropped from the regression calculation because their contribution to security behavior is non-significant. Traits ‘Mission’ and ‘Awareness’ were found to be reasonably and positively connected to the consent of organizational members to act according to security standards. These results are consistent with previous findings from
Greene and D'Arcy (2010) who predicted that security culture, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational funds have a positive impact on organizations IS security. Empirical evidence of partial coefficients' relationship with dependent variable presented in Table 5 shows that security ‘Mission’ explains the largest amount of variance (52 %). It is followed by ‘Awareness’ that explains (34 %) of variance. Findings of the analysis show that target and awareness oriented security impact the cooperative actions of the company employees in the field of security.

Table 6: Partial coefficients in the model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Culture traits</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.431</td>
<td>.319</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission</td>
<td>.442</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.526</td>
<td>7.580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptable</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>-.741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>-.352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>.254</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>4.433</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001.
Entries are significant standardized regression coefficients

Discussion

In this paper, I empirically tested the model on the benefit security values on security cooperative behavior of organizational members. Empirical results suggest that purpose in the form of a mission and security awareness significantly explain the guarantee of compliance behavior. The results also provide some evidence that these factors or traits are moderated by weighted variable ‘Organization type’. Relationship between security culture traits and collective behavior of company employees supports my assumption of the impact of security culture on cooperative behavior of employees.

However, as noted, extant research has conceptualized security culture as basic characteristics for commitment to excellence. My study contributes to the content validity of the security culture by transforming four organizational culture characteristics based on Denison et al (2006) principles, to the characteristics of a security culture. The examination of the security excellence advances our understanding of the factors that enable company employees’ behaviour towards the secure business environment. This behaviour is demonstrated as an excellent information security.
However, the results regarding the adaptability and involvement security characteristics were not as expected. Further research is needed to confirm that security culture develops excellent security behaviour. Based on the extant literature I expected that adaptability and involvement of employees would predict it, but there was no significant relationship. Most likely explanation is that purpose accompanied by regular security governance is the prevailing factor in determining security compliance of employees resulting in security excellence. Systematic review of security threats already involves the setting of a comprehensive security system that is an essential condition for a systematic development of security compliance actions. However, it is appropriate that involvement of employees and consistency of surveillance activities does not knowingly verify agreement actions. Firstly, company management does not include employees in the operational security problem solving process and secondly, security threats are not publicly presented to the employees.

Conclusions
This study has implications for both the research and practice of security in an organization. From a research perspective, this paper offers conceptualization of security culture by adding different views, and the representation of the involvement of the employees in the active solving of security problems. The present study is also one of the few in the security studies that include behavioural variables. For practitioners, the results point to the importance of organizational member commitment to security as drivers of security culture, which in turn contributes to competitiveness of a company. Further, efforts to create a safe and secure environment where organizational members can commit themselves to the core business goals of the organization, would improve the overall quality of life and the quality of interaction with an environment.

Limitations and future research
This study like the others has some limitations that need to be considered when interpreting the results. My research suggests that the relationship between the security culture traits and compliance behavior of organizational members may be contingent on some additional factors. Future studies should assess the impact of culture traits in other companies from different private and public sectors. The methods to determine security culture must be improved by using nonlinear methods for statistical analysis. The measurement tool of security culture has to be supplemented with new items describing adaptability and involvement of company employees in the building of the strong security compliant behaviour.
References


UNDERSTANDING INTERNET USE AMONG PASSIVE AND ACTIVE TOURISTS. IS THERE A NEED FOR A DIFFERENT WEB APPROACH?

Nataša Slak Valek¹, Eva Podovšovnik Axelsson²

Abstract
The study empirically investigates the use of the Internet among active and passive tourists from Slovenia. The different purposes of using the Internet were thoroughly researched. A T-test and analysis of variance were used to test the research hypotheses. The main finding shows use of the Internet a significant influence among active and passive tourists from Slovenia. At the same time the travel destination – travelling domestically and travelling abroad – has been found to have a significant influence when using the Internet for travel purposes. For tourism destinations using web-reservation systems for booking different tourism services, it is vital to know the presented data. The implications of the results are discussed in the context of tourism marketing and sales.

Key words: Internet, eTourism, passive tourists, active tourists, diffusion of the Internet

Introduction
The Internet has changed tourism consumer behaviour dramatically (Mills & Law, 2004) and has significantly influenced the tourism sector providing a great variety of services and products online (Kebassi, 2010). With the increasing importance of search in travellers’ access to information, tourist destinations and businesses must find better ways to adapt to the fast-pace change in the environment (Pan, Xiang, Law, Fesenmaier, 2011). Being prepared to take prompt action, especially in a tourism offer on Internet, tourism destinations and business need to acquire data about their potential and present tourists. One of the important pieces of data nowadays is the activity of tourists, which can be derived by their motivation to travel. The present research focus was the motivation for travelling combined with the use of the Internet for travel purposes. Two questions were researched; 1. How does the

---

¹ Nataša Slak Valek, PhD. Assistant Professor, I-Shou University, Taiwan e-mail: natasa@isu.edu.tw

² Eva Podovšovnik Axelsson, PhD., Assistant Professor, University of Primorska, Faculty for Tourism Studies, -mail: eva.podovsovnik@turistica.si
motivation for travelling affect the use of the Internet, booking transportation and accommodations online and 2. the differences in using online systems for travel purposes between domestic and foreign tourists were thoroughly explored. The sample set consists of tourists who are residents of Slovenia.

**Passive vs. active tourists**

Every tourist is different, carrying a unique blend of experiences, motivations and desires (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Passive tourists prefer “sea, sun and sand” destinations and their main action is taking sun and/or relaxing in spas and health resorts, while active tourists need more dynamic travel experiences, travel destinations with content. Since the differences between tourists with different motives for travelling were found in socio-demographics and travel habits in past research (Ryan, 2003; Pizam and Fleischer, 2005; Slak Valek, 2008; Letho et al, 2004; and other), the question regarding differences in using the Internet among passive and active tourists nowadays offers itself in the “Internet period”. Utilising behavioural dimensions to segment travel markets can be a powerful tool in managing tourism (Hennessey, Macdonald, Maceachern, 2008). The development of the Internet empowered the "new" tourist who is becoming knowledgeable and is seeking exceptional value for their money and time (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Although a large proportion of vacations are spent on international trips, especially in the summer season, several other types of tourism demands emerged (Buhalis, 2001), specifically by more specialised travellers such as golfers, fly fishing enthusiasts, kite-surfers etc... A bed and good food in the hotel is not enough for a “new” tourist. The content of the traveling experience affects choosing a tourism destination (Seddighi in Theocharous, 2002). Consequently, information about leisure activity interests and their association with each other could prove very useful in planning and development efforts (Brey & Lehto, 2007). Today, tourists are seeking more and more places that are interesting, adventurous, and can provide great stories and experiences. On the other hand, tourism destinations are doing everything possible to offer different experiences and activities because it is recognised that the active tourist is spending more money than the passive tourist is (Letho et al, 2004; Gibson, 2004; Slak Valek, 2008). For this reason it is vital to know the preferences of active tourists, tourists focused on an activity. The transformation of tourists from “passive audiences” to “active players” (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2000) is facilitated by the digital environment. Consequently the web-booking systems should be of interest in differences ways for active tourists and passive tourists who use the Internet for seeking different kinds of information, booking trips and paying.
In this present research “the activity” is not meant to be a sport only. An active tourist may also be interested in other tourism activities, such as a cultural activity, religious activity, visiting nature attractions and other types of active participation. Customers are stepping out of their traditional roles to become co-creators as well as consumers of value (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2000). In the end, creative tourism depends far more on the active involvement of tourists (Richards & Wilson, 2006). In our study, active tourists are tourists who are motivated to participate in various activities while travelling and the tourists whose main motivations for travelling are rest and relaxation are defined as passive tourists.

Data by the Statistical office of the Republic of Slovenia (SORS) is being collected in a way to assure the distribution of Slovenian tourists by their main motive for travelling which are the following: rest & relaxation; sport & recreation; sight-seeing; culture, entertainment & sport as spectator; culture, entertainment & sport as participant (non-professional), shopping, education reasons, health reasons, going on a pilgrimage, other. This kind of data collection allows us to group tourists with the main motive for travelling being rest and relaxation in one group called “passive tourists” and tourists with all other motives for travelling in the second group called “active tourists”.

Is dividing tourists into two groups really important? The fact is that active tourists tend to spend more money while travelling due to the various activity costs. Our hypotheses is that the passive tourist is very different than the active tourist in many ways, but the difference in using the Internet and booking on-line for travel purpose will be shown in our research. This is why it is vital for our research to divide the tourists into passive and active categories. Different consumers not only require different value for money, but also value of time for the entire range of their dealings with organisations (Buhalis & O'Connor, 2005). On the other hand an important finding of Gibson (2004) and Slak Valek (2008) is that an active tourist spends more for the activity than for an expensive accommodation. Everyday more booking systems offer different kind of web-booking opportunities – not only for booking accommodations. But do they know what an active or passive tourist searches for when booking online?
Internet use for travel purposes
In recent years, search engines have become a dominant source in consumers’ use of the Internet to access travel products. For example, research conducted by the Travel Industry Association of America found that a substantial number of travellers use search engines for travel planning (TIA, 2005, 2008). Apart from accommodations, flight booking and car rentals, the growth of travel offerings on the Internet now include vacation packages, cruises, events, tours and attractions (NYU/PhocusWright Report, 2003). Customer satisfaction depends highly on the accuracy and comprehensiveness of tourism information and the ability of organisations to provide tools for customisation (Buhalis & O'Connor, 2005). As such, it is argued that understanding how search engines work and how travellers use these tools provides one of the keys to successful search engine marketing programs for tourist destinations (Xiang & Pan, 2010). This is why tourism organisations need to develop technology supported personalised services to address individual needs. They should collect customer information at each stage of service - before, during and after a visit - in order to better understand consumer behaviour choices, concerns and determinants (Buhalis & O'Connor, 2005).

Some researches were made with the goal of understanding socio-demographics characteristics among tourists and Internet users (lookers and bookers) which help different organisations and booking systems to adopt their web sites for the specific customer. Bonn, Furr and Susskind (1998) found Internet "users," when compared with "non-users," are more educated, have higher household incomes, use commercial lodging accommodations while travelling, tend to travel by air, and spend more money on travel-related expenses on a per diem basis. This information was very important when Internet and booking systems emerged, but nowadays more information about specific tourists with different motives for travelling are needed. Other researches were made in exploring demographics between Internet users and tourists at the same time (Weber and Roehl, 1999), but little research has been done on the travel-related behaviours of Internet travellers. Morrison et al. (2001) found that some lookers book travel online, while others go to travel agents or call the toll-free numbers of travel providers after getting travel information online. The tourism sector needed this kind of information years ago, but today we have different tourists with different travel motivation which cause different activity while travelling. A good example is the PhoCusWright research which just found that less than one third of all travel activities, events, attractions and tours were booked online in 2009, but a growing aggregator network and advancements in technology and commercial models will power
significant growth in advance bookings and online distribution (PhoCusWright research, 2011). E-business has the potential of generating tremendous new wealth, mostly through entrepreneurial start-ups and corporate ventures. It is also transforming the rules of competition for established businesses in unprecedented ways (Amit & Zott, 2001). We were interested in tourism bookings and searched by tourists with different motives for travelling. Building upon a number of recent studies on travellers’ use of the Internet, search engines and booking systems (Morrison et al, 2001; Pan, Litvin, & O'Donnell, 2007; Buhalis & Law, 2008; Pan et al, 2011; Xiang & Pan, 2010), the aim of our research is to provide an understanding of the differences among passive and active tourists using the Internet. Passive tourists differ from tourists with a specific motive for travelling. Hence, it follows passive tourists use the Internet and therefore the booking systems in a different way than active tourists do. The success of search engine marketing requires a good understanding of consumer behaviour in order to provide the information desired by different consumers (Xiang & Pan, 2010). Tourism destinations need to be informed about how active tourists use the Internet by using different booking systems and search engines. On the other hand the same question derives when attracting domestic and foreign tourists, passive and active tourists and others.

Data, hypotheses and model of work
The research methodology was prepared and based on quantitative survey data. The data was received by the Statistical Office of Slovenia (SORS). The target populations were Slovenian citizens (aged 15 and above). The data was collected throughout the year 2008. The sampling frame was the directory of private telephone subscribers in the Republic of Slovenia. The sample was stratified systematically. Strata were defined by statistical region (12 regions) and type of settlement within the region (6 types). Each stratum was independently sampled.

From the SORS two databases were received, one with the data about travels of Slovenians within Slovenia and second with the data about travels of Slovenians abroad. The SORS also prepared the necessary weights, according to the population data. In total we received data from 2,346 respondents travelling within Slovenia and 2,282 respondents travelling abroad. The obtained data represents 1,795,535 travels made by Slovenians within Slovenia and 1,937,345 travels made by Slovenians abroad, after weighting. We combined the two databases in one and constructed a new database containing all the data (from Slovenians travelling within Slovenia and those travelling outside Slovenia).
Figure 1 presents the research model that was prepared according to the theoretical background explained in previous chapter.

Figure 1: Model of work

```
Motive of
Passive vs. active

Travel
Slovenia vs. outside Slovenia

Internet use for travel purpose
Different purpose of Internet usage:
- booking and/or paying the transportation
- booking and/or paying the
```

Source: own research model

The two hypotheses were tested in our work:

- H1: The main motive for travelling (active vs. passive travel) influences the use of the Internet for travel purposes.
- H2: The travel destination (travelling within Slovenia vs. travelling outside Slovenia) influences the use of the Internet for travel purposes.

All the data was weighed according to the weights and methodological implications prepared by the SORS. The methodological implications of the obtained data are shown in the representative data. The SORS developed the weighing and validation of obtained data. If there are between 0 and 12 units in each cell for non-weighed data then we cannot present the results since they are not representative. In the tables we present this data with the sign --. If there are between 12 and 75 units in each cell for non-weighed data then we have to report limited representativeness of the obtained data. In the tables we present this data with the sign M. If more than 75 units are in each cell for non-weighed data we can assume that the obtained results are representative of the Slovenian population.

According to the above mentioned methodological implications and limitations provided to us by the contract with SORS (in which we agreed to analyse the data and interpret the results accordingly to the methodological implications), only the bivariate statistical analysis for testing the research hypothesis could be done. If we prepared the cross-tabulations for more than 2 variables at a time on non-weighed data the number in each cell diminished to non representative results (meaning
we cannot publish the results because they are not contained in the methodological implications). Thus, the T-test and analysis of variance to test the research hypothesis could be used.

**Preparation of the data**

**Motive for travelling**

Slovenian tourists travelling in 2008 were grouped in two groups for our research. The first group represents tourists from Slovenia travelling with the main motive for travel being “rest and relaxation” and are called passive tourists. The second group represents tourists from Slovenia travelling with all other motives for travelling (sport & recreation; sightseeing; culture, entertainment & sport as spectator; culture, entertainment & sport as participant (non-professional), shopping, education, health, pilgrimage) and are called active tourists.

Figure 2: Active and passive tourists from Slovenia

Source: SORS (2008)

Of the trips made by Slovenians in 2008, 75.8 % were passive trips and 24.2 % were active trips.

**Travel destination**

In the following figure, the travel destinations of Slovenians in 2008 are presented. Travellers within Slovenia and travellers travelling outside Slovenia were distinguished. 51.9 % of trips by Slovenians were made outside Slovenia, while 48.1 % of trips by Slovenians were made within Slovenia.
Demographic data
Continuing on, demographic data is now presented. During 2008 50.6 % of trips were made by males and 49.4 % of trips were made by females. Most of the trips (23.2%) were made by young people (aged between 15 and 24), 18.7 % of trips were made by Slovenians aged between 45 and 54, 17.6 % by those aged between 35 and 44, 17.0 % by those aged between 25 and 34 and 15.6 % by those aged between 55 and 64. Only 7.9% of all trips made by Slovenians were made by those aged above 65. The highest level of education of respondents was also analysed. More than one quarter (25.4%) of all trips were made by those who completed 3 years of high school. 21.5 % of the trips were made by those who completed 2 years of high school, 16.9 % by those who completed elementary school or have a lower education, 14.7 % by those who completed university or postgraduate studies. 10.8 % of all the trips made by Slovenians were made by those who had completed 4 years of high school and 10.7 % by those who had completed college education.

Use of the Internet for travel purposes
In the survey the respondents were asked if the Internet was used for their travel purpose in 2008. The possible answers were “yes” and “no”. Results of that question are shown in figure 4.
Among Internet users (28.3%) the exact purpose of using Internet was thoroughly researched. The respondents were asked to define if they used the Internet to gather information about the tourism destination, if they booked or paid the transportation for their trip and if they booked or paid the accommodation for their trip. In the following figure the distribution of the answers is presented.

Source: SORS (2008)

Most Internet users (95.3%) used the Internet to get information about the travel destination. According to the limitations of the used methodology, the indicator of getting the information about the destination cannot be used further in our statistical analysis due to less representative frequency obtained. The next popular feature for the use
of the Internet for travelling is booking the accommodation (29.5%). Only 13.0% of trips made by Slovenians Internet users paid the accommodation by web, 8.7% Internet users booked the transportation and 6.9% paid the transportation.

Results

The influence of travel motive to the use of Internet for travel purposes

The influence of travel motive to the use of the Internet for travel purposes was tested in our research. Our hypotheses were that the main motive for travelling, especially when distinguished between active and passive tourists, influences the use of Internet for travel purposes. The results are shown in figure 6.

Figure 6: Usage of Internet for travel purpose among passive and active tourists

![Chart showing usage of Internet for travel purposes among passive and active tourists]

Source: SORS (2008)

The difference among active and passive tourists in the use of Internet for travel purposes was found to be statistically significant at the null level (p=0.000). Among passive trips made by Slovenians, mostly (75.3%) there were those who did not use the Internet for any kind of travel purposes. Analysing active trips has found the results to be split in half by those active tourists who used the Internet for travel purposes (50.5%) and those who did not use the Internet for travel purposes (49.5%). Results are representative for all trips made by Slovenians in 2008. The results clearly show active tourists to be more Internet-focused users than passive tourists are.
The influence of the motive for travelling on how the Internet was used for travel purposes was also tested. All the differences were found to be statistically significant (p=0.000). It was found that the Internet was more often used by active tourists when booking the transportation (10.4% active compared to 7.0% of passive tourists), when paying the transportation (9.7% active compared to 4.6% of passive tourists), booking the accommodation (32.4% active compared to 32.1% of passive trips) and paying the accommodation (16.8% active compared to 12.3% of passive trips). The results shown for accommodation booking are representative for all the trips made by Slovenians in 2008 and all other results are less representative for the trips made by Slovenians in 2008.

The influence of the travel destination on the use of Internet for travel purposes
In continuing to test our second hypotheses, figure 8 shows the results between the chosen travel destination and the use of the Internet. Travel destination is distinguished between travelling within Slovenia and outside Slovenia.
More than one third (36.7%) of all the trips made abroad and 19.2% of all the trips made domestically were organised using the Internet. The difference was found to be statistically significant (p=0.000). Results are representative for all trips made by Slovenians in 2008. The influence of the chosen travel destination has been found to be significant when using the Internet for travel purposes.

The results for the influence of the travel destination for using the Internet for booking and paying the transportation were not representative (according to the limitations of the research methodology) for all the trips made by Slovenians in 2008. The influence of the travel destination on the use of the Internet for booking and paying the accommodation was found to be statistically significant (p=0.000). There was more Internet use for booking the accommodation for trips made outside Slovenia (30.2% compared to 28.0% of the trips made within Slovenia). Results are representative for all trips made by Slovenians in 2008. There was more Internet use for paying the accommodation for trips made outside Slovenia (14.2 % compared to 10.5 % of the trips made within Slovenia). Results are less representative for all trips made by Slovenians in 2008.
Figure 9: The purpose of Internet usage among domestic and foreign tourists from Slovenia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>travel to Slovenia</th>
<th>travel outside Slovenia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>use internet for booking transportation</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
<td>12.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use internet for pay transportation</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use internet for booking the accommodation</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use internet for pay accommodation</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: SORS (2008)

**Discussion and conclusions**

We found many Slovenian tourists to be passive while traveling (75.8%) and only 24.2% of Slovenian tourists are traveling with an active content plan. Slak Valek, Jurak and Bednarik (2011) found that sports-active tourists from Slovenia choose different types of transportation, they spend more money on sports activities and less on accommodation and there is greater interest in winter sports. In the past, research on the active tourist determined that they spend more money than the passive tourist. For an easier understanding, a good example of a passive tourist is a tourist resting on the beach (sea-sand-sun tourist) on an all-inclusive last minute tourism package, on the other hand we find an active tourist playing golf or fly fishing, not only spending money for accommodations, but for a tee time or a fishing license, drinks and food out in the hotel and around town. Due to the differences found between passive and active tourists in their Internet use, a tourism destination should be interested in all the activities made by tourists before they arrive to the tourism destination, distinguished to passive and active tourists. The use of Internet in the travelling process (before, during and after travelling) was confirmed as very important factor influencing the choosing of a tourism destination (Bonn, Furr & Susskind, 1998; Heung, 2003, Kebassi, 2010). The Internet is widely used as a means to deliver up-to-date content (Buhalis & Licata, 2002), but the number of choices has increased so dramatically that it is very difficult for the consumers to find what they are looking for (Kebassi, 2010). Even the most experienced manager or leader of the tourism destination organisation recognises the
importance of Internet use in the process of choosing a tourism destination, but our findings propose an difference of Internet users among passive and active tourists.

Luo et all (2004) found that tourists who use the Internet to book their holidays spend more time at their destinations compared to those who do not use the Internet. As we found, many active tourists are using Internet and less passive tourists are using Internet for their travel purpose being just the recommendation for tourism destinations. It was found that there are differences between passive and active tourists who use Internet and online systems for booking accommodations and transportation. This is why we suggest to prepare different booking systems and Internet pages for the tourism destination – different for passive and different for active tourists - and to also attempt different types of targeted web-communication. More than half the tourists whose main motive for travelling is sport, culture or any other activity, use Internet for travel purposes, but on the other hand we find that only 24.7% of passive tourists to use the Internet for travel purposes. The other 75.3% of passive tourists (those whose main motive of travelling is “rest and relaxation”) probably still find most of their information in tourist agencies, by telephone and similar. Schmidt-Rauch, Keller, Schwabe (2010) found that agents essentially appreciated the opportunity to stay in touch with their customers and sell them additional products and services in a highly individualised way. But since we will find more passive tourists booking their trip in the tourism agency, the results could be explained as that the agencies do not serve their customer with enough options to be active while travelling as they usually sell a passive leisure time or tourism package already prepared. This is understandable, since it is easier to sell already prepared packages with flight and hotels than to organise and book separate desired activities (golf, kite-surfer, fly fishing etc.). The time spent collecting information about desired activities could be an opportunity to gather more information about customers, like how they behave while travelling and what their needs are on a trip. The collected data is welcomed and opens a new space for product and service development at destinations. But the problem arises when the customer is prepared to buy an activity, but the potential active tourist find only passive “all inclusive” trips being promoted. This could be the reason why we found more than 2/3 of tourists to be passive and only 24.2% of Slovenian tourists to be active, when all the activities are included (shopping, sport, etc.). The need for modernisation and the entrance of new competitors in the market influence the future of traditional electronic distribution channels (Buhalis & Licata, 2002). The results of Pan, Litvin, O’Donnell (2007) suggest that travellers most often search for their accommodations
simultaneously with their search for other aspects of their travel, such as destinations, attractions, transportations, and dining; and that they most often commence their search seeking specific hotels in conjunction with the city they are considering for a visit. This is the way of thinking of an active tourist. Certain activity associations or dissociations based on consumers’ behaviour can present themselves as counter-intuitive or illogical on the part of the destination planners, but still be successful tandem offerings (Brey & Lehto, 2007). The development of ICTs and particularly the Internet empowered the "new" tourist who is becoming knowledgeable and is seeking exceptional value for money and time. They are less interested in following the crowds in packaged tours and much more keen to pursue their own preferences and schedules (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Our results show the purpose of Internet use between passive and active tourists and again it is shown that active tourists are more “web-passionate”. The differences between passive and active tourists are clear and are worth being taken into serious consideration.

Continuing, we found more active tourists are more prone to book and buy transportation and accommodations on the web more often than passive tourists are. Only 7% of passive tourists and 10.4% of active tourists use the Internet for booking transportation and only 4.7% of passive and 9.7% of active tourists actually pay the transportation on-line. We can see that active tourists are still more, if you allow us to say, “courageous” in booking and buying on-line, but still the percentage of both groups of tourists (passive and active) in paying and booking transportation on-line is relatively low. According to Wolfe, Hsu, and Kang’s (2004) research, the reasons of consumers not purchasing travel products online are the lack of personal service, security issues, lack of experience, and time consuming. Booking the accommodation on line is cca. 32% in both groups of tourists (passive and active), but in paying the accommodation on-line the percentages is again lower (12.3% for passive and almost 17% for active tourists). The reason of such a big difference between passive and active tourists in using Internet for different travel purposes and paying on-line could be found in the socio-demographics, as well. Heung (2003) found travellers with higher education and higher annual household income are more likely to use the Internet for on-line purchases, but on the other hand Slak Valek (2008), Gibson (2004), Attle (1996) found more sport-active tourists to be higher educated with higher income than passive tourist. Merging all the findings, our conclusion is that an active tourist is more educated and more likely to use Internet for travel purpose, and as already discovered, an active tourist spends more on travelling than a passive tourist does. This is why we highly recommend to tourism destinations to
promote active travelling, which is not only sport-active travelling, but a travelling experience with content. A good method of promotion for active travelling can be achieved by reservations system allowing the customer to book all the activities on one place (hotels, flight tickets and the activities to and at the destination). To attract customers to the electronic marketplace, tourism business websites will have to offer reservation functions and value-added services, and to attain disintermediation in the electronic marketplace, tourism businesses, e.g. hotels and airlines, will have to offer services similar to those offered by intermediaries such as travel agencies and tour operators if they are to reduce what customers perceive as risks (Nysveen & Lexhagen, 2001). More than that, we have a sport-active tourist who is prepared to spend more for a sport activity and less for the accommodation (Slak Valek, 2008) and this is why the on-line reservation system should offer to book on-line the activity and the hotel reservation at the same site. In this way an individual could see on the same site how much they are spending for the activity and how much of their budget is meant for accommodations.

While we queried tourists who are travelling in their domestic country and those who are travelling abroad, the results show that more “abroad” tourists use Internet for travelling purpose. Traveling in a domestic country does not need so much preparation, at least travelling in Slovenia, which is a small country. The results in this point of view are not surprising. But once a Slovene tourist is going abroad, they need to acquire more information about the foreign country and they book and buy on-line more often. Usually this is why when going to a different country for a holiday, a tourist want to have everything organised without any surprises.

Finally some study limitations need to be mentioned. Despite the effectiveness of this analysis, the study’s findings are limited by the sample (residents of Slovenia only). Applying the study to other populations is highly recommended. On the other hand we also have to take into consideration our data is from 2008. Since the Internet is fast-growing and searching tools quickly-changing, the respondent answers could be different today or tomorrow. In future research there could be more emphasis on other uses of Internet, such as booking and buying event tickets (sports, cultural and similar), booking and buying organised trips and similar. The selected questions could be also transformed into ordinal variables, instead of the now-used dichotomous variables that offer just the possibility of “yes-no” answers. The respondents could be using different types of ordinal measurement scales that would measure the intensity of different types of Internet use. There could also be more
focus on checking the different web pages respondents visit while searching for information, booking and buying products and services over the Internet. In this way there could be a more detailed view of the use of the Internet for tourism purposes. Upgraded and further researches are desirable.

References


Statistical office of the Republic of Slovenia (2008): Tourism travels of domestic population. SORS.
Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences (IIASS)

Editorial correspondence
All correspondence or correspondence concerning any general questions, article submission or book reviews should be addressed to info@iiass.si.

Subscription to IIASS
IIASS is available free of any charge at http://www.iiass.com. You can sign in for a free newsletter.

Advertising
Please find our advertising policy at http://www.iiass.com For additional questions or inquiries you can contact us on e-mail info@iiass.si.

Language
The objective of academic journal is to provide clear communication with an international audience. Style and elegance is secondary aim. In this manner we allow US and UK spelling as long as it is consistency within the article. Authors are responsible for language editing before submitting the article.

Notes for Contributors
Please refer to www.iiass.com for detailed instructions. Sample layout can be downloaded from http://www.iiass.com/uploaded_articles/IIASS_layout.doc

Scope:
IIASS is electronic peer reviewed international journal covering all social sciences (Political science, sociology, economy, public administration, law, management, communication science, etc.). Journal is open to theoretical and empirical articles of established scientist and researchers as well as of perspective young students. All articles have to pass blind peer review.

IIASS welcomes innovative ideas in researching established topics or articles that are trying to open new issues that are still searching for its scientific recognition.

Copyright
IIASS is exclusively electronic peer reviewed journal that is published three times a year (initially in January, May and September) by CEOs Ltd and it is available free of charge at http://www.iiass.com. All rights reserved. No part of this journal may be reproduced for profitable reasons in any form, by photostat, microform, retrieval system, or any other means, without prior written permission of the publisher. The responsibility for respecting copyrights in the quotations of a published article rests with the author(s). When publishing an article in IIASS, authors automatically assign copyright to the journal. However, authors retain their right to reuse the material in other publications written or edited by themselves and due to be published at least one year after initial publication in IIASS.

Additional information is available on: www.iiass.com