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Vladimir Senić, Radoslav Senić
KOMUNIKACIJA U USLOVIMA KRIZE
Communication in the State of Crisis

Ana Popović
MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION
INSTITUTIONS IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA
Marketing komuniciranje visokoškolskih ustanova u Republici Srbiji

Slađana Starčević
THE ORIGIN AND HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF BRANDING AND
ADVERTISING IN THE OLD CIVILIZATIONS OF AFRICA, ASIA AND EUROPE
Poreklo i istorijski razvoj brendiranja i oglašavanja u starim civilizacijama Afrike, Azije i Evrope

Mirosljub Nikolić, Dušan Cvetanović,
Danijela Despotović
INNOVATIVENESS OF SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED ENTERPRISES IN THE
REPUBLIC OF SERBIA AND COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION
Inovativnost malih i srednjih preduzeća u Republici Srbiji i zemljama Evropske Unije

Sretenka Dugalić, Jovana Ivić
ANGAŽOVANJE SLAVNIH SPORTISTA U PROMOCIJI PROIZVODA I USLUGA
The Sport Celebrity Endorsement in Promotion of Products and Services

Amela Bešlagić
KLJUČNE DETERMINANTE POTROŠAČKOG ETNOCENTRIZMA
U BOSNI I HERCEGOVINI
The Key Determinants of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Bosnia and Herzegovina

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ČLANCI/PAPERS

Komunikacija u uslovima krize	155
<i>Communication in the State of Crisis</i>	
Vladimir Senić, Radoslav Senić	
Marketing Communications of Higher Education Institutions in the Republic of Serbia . . .	166
<i>Marketing komuniciranje visokoškolskih ustanova u Republici Srbiji</i>	
Ana Popović	
The Origin and Historical Development of Branding and Advertising in the Old Civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe	179
<i>Poreklo i istorijski razvoj brendiranja i oglašavanja u starim civilizacijama Afrike, Azije i Evrope</i>	
Sladana Starčević	
Innovativeness of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises in the Republic of Serbia and Countries of the European Union	197
<i>Inovativnost malih i srednjih preduzeća u Republici Srbiji i zemljama Evropske Unije</i>	
Miroljub Nikolić, Dušan Cvetanović, Danijela Despotović	
Angažovanje slavnih sportista u promociji proizvoda i usluga	207
<i>The Sport Celebrity Endorsement in Promotion of Products and Services</i>	
Sretenka Dugalić, Jovana Ivić	
Ključne determinante potrošačkog etnocentrizma u Bosni i Hercegovini	217
<i>The Key Determinants of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Bosnia and Herzegovina</i>	
Amela Bešlagić	

UPUTSTVO ZA AUTORE

Tehničko uputstvo za korišćenje sistema e-Ur: Elektronsko uređivanje časopisa	227
Uputstvo za autore/Instructions to Authors.	237

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Komunikacija u uslovima krize

Vladimir SeniĆ, Radoslav SeniĆ

Apstrakt: Zbog raznovrsnosti istraživanja vezanih za krizu, veoma je važno da se blagovremeno i adekvatno prezentiraju definicije ključnih termina krize, kriznog menadžmenta i kriznog komuniciranja, s ciljem što preciznijeg utvrđivanja granica između njih. Naime, ovo troje su nerazmrsivo međusobno isprepleteni i moraju se razmotriti počevši od prvih signala nastanka krize, preko kriznog menadžmenta, do kriznog komuniciranja. U vreme krize, konvencionalne prakse menadžmenta su neadekvatne, a načini reagovanja obično nedovoljni. Stoga su u ovom radu jasno definisani pojmovi krize, kriznog menadžmenta i kriznog komuniciranja.

Ključne reči: kriza, krizno komuniciranje, krizni menadžment

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UVOD

Da bi preduzeće steklo dobru reputaciju možda su potrebne godine, a samo dan ili čak nekoliko sati pogrešnog upravljanja krizom da se ona uništi. Preduzeća su danas više nego ikada izložena riziku krize – s jedne strane, zbog porasta faktora koji izazivaju krizu, a s druge strane zbog dolaska savremenih masovnih medija. Dok je ranije još uvek bilo moguće da se o krizi raspravlja tiho i potajno unutar sopstvenog preduzeća, to u današnjem informacionom društvu jedva da se više može sprovesti. Upravo mediji imaju povećani interes u tome da otkrivaju krize preduzeća i učine informacije o nastalim kriznim događajima dostupnim širokoj javnosti. Dok su još pre samo nekoliko godina krizom bila ugrožena pretežno preduzeća koja su poslovala u osetljivom okruženju kao npr. preduzeća u hemijskoj industriji ili nuklearne elektrane, danas se opasnost krize proširila gotovo na sve vrste preduzeća. Mediji danas izveštavaju sve više o menadžerima upletenim u razne korupcionaške afere ili o utvrđenim nedostacima proizvoda, ali i o prirodnim katastrofama, terorizmu i brojnim drugim uzrocima krize.

Otuda je za preduzeća od ogromnog značaja da znaju kako u takvoj situaciji treba komunicirati sa javnošću i šta treba da preduzme menadžer za odnose s javnošću (engl. public relations (PR) manager – PR menadžer), čija je uloga presudna u uspešnoj komunikaciji u krizi. Posebna uloga pripada baš komunikaciji u situaciji krize. Prema tome, od značaja je ukazati na koji način može da komunicira preduzeće pogođeno krizom. Najčešći izgovor koji se navodi za nedovoljnu ili čak nikakvu pripremljenost za moguću krizu je da se kriza ne može planirati.

Kontinuirano, puno poverenja i uverljivo komuniciranje rizika i krize može presudno da doprinese da se greške i nesporednosti pri savladavanju krize svedu na najmanju meru i spreči gubitak poverenja i narušavanje imidža. Pritom, stalna komunikacija rizika u periodu pre izbijanja krize može značajno olakšati i krizno komuniciranje u trenutku kada stvarna kriza nastane.

U radu se najpre raspravlja o samom fenomenu krize, o tome da li je kriza opasnost ili šansa za preduzeće, kako teče sama kriza, zatim šta je krizno komuniciranje, koji su njegovi ciljevi, strategije i tipovi. Na kraju rada se ukazuje na ulogu PR-a u kriznom komuniciranju.

1. FENOMEN KRIZE

Mada je kriza postala jedna od najčešće korišćenih reči u svakodnevnom govoru, ta učestalost primene ipak nije još uvek dovela do jasnog razumevanja samog sadržaja pojma kriza, već, štaviše, dozvoljava različite interpretacije, od kojih će ovde samo neke biti pomenute.

Pojam kriza izvodi se iz latinske reči *crisis*. Reč *crisis* je identična sa grčkom reči *xoiois* što „izvorno, sasvim uopšteno, označava svaki prekid nekog do tada kontinualnog razvoja i, u užem smislu, situaciju odlučivanja, koja označava prekretnicu, tačku zaokreta odnosno vrhunac opasnog razvoja. Ona istovremeno označava situaciju sa ekstremnom ambivalentnošću mogućnosti razvoja“ (Krystek, 1987, str. 3)

Slobodno se može reći da ima toliko definicija krize, koliko i autora iz ove oblasti. Navode se sledeća tipična obeležja definicija: ugrožavanje, iznenađenje, pritisak vremena, stres, izazivač dalekosežnih promena itd. Kriza označava posebno stanje u razvoju jedne pojave, obrt stvari u odnosu na njen dotadašnji tok. Nema jedne, univerzalno prihvaćene definicije krize. Postoje mnoge konceptualne sličnosti u definicijama, čak i kada ove definicije nisu u potpunosti iste. U nastavku izlaganja navešćemo neke od obično korišćenih definicija krize. Ovaj kraći pregled sadrži definicije dobro poznatih autora iz oblasti krize, ali nastoji i da pokrije spektar disciplina, uključujući odnose sa javnošću (PR), menadžment i organizaciono komuniciranje.

Neke od ovih definicija se karakterišu greškom ili dramatičnim zaokretom u istoriji organizacije. Neke se fokusiraju na potrebu aktivnosti menadžmenta van normalne ili rutinske procedure. Neke naglašavaju stres, a neke opet neadekvatnu kontrolu, neizvesnost, kršenje zakona ili etike i drugih propisa. Neke ističu slabu pripremljenost i neadekvatnu prevenciju – kao i potrebu za planiranjem kriznog komuniciranja, obuke, podele ličnih uloga i drugih strategijskih i taktičkih opcija, uključujući skicirane poruke koje će se koristiti „kada se kriza dogodi“. U svim ovim definicijama prisutan je fokus ka tome da li organizacija zna, shvata, planira i čini sve da spreči, ublaži, odgovori i nešto nauči iz krize.

Jednu od najsveobuhvatnijih definicija krize dao je Krystek (1987, str. 6-7; 1989, str. 187), poznati nemački autor u ovoj oblasti. On smatra da su krize preduzeća neplanirani i neželjeni procesi ograničenog trajanja na koje se uslovno može uticati, čiji je ishod ambivalentan i može da znači uništenje ili restituciju (i metamorfozu). One su u stanju da supstancijalno i

trajno ugroze ili čak onemogućće dalji opstanak celog preduzeća. To se događa putem nanošenja znatne štete određenim (dominantnim) ciljevima, čije je ugrožavanje ili čak neostvarivanje od istog značaja kao i ugrožavanje trajne egzistencije preduzeća kao samostalne i aktivno učestvujuće jedinice u privrednom procesu sa njegovom do tada važećom svhom i ciljem. Fink (1986, str. 15) opisuje krizu kao „zaokret, koji nije nužno opterećen nepopravljivim negativizmom, već se pre karakteriše sa određenim stepenom rizika i neizvesnosti“. Fink time prihvata istorijsko značenje pojma preokreta i kao svojstvo krize dodaje rizik i neizvesnost situacije. Seeger, Sellnow i Ulmer (2001, str. 15) slično definišu krizu, dodajući joj svakako ugrožavanje važnih ciljeva organizacije u slučaju krize: „Krise su specifični, neočekivani i nerutinski događaji ili serije događaja koji kreiraju visok nivo neizvesnosti i ugrožavaju, ili se nazire da ugrožavaju, ciljeve organizacije visokog prioriteta“.

Po mišljenju Coombs-a (2010, str. 19) kriza bi se mogla posmatrati kao percepcija događaja koji ugrožava važna očekivanja stejkholdera i može da utiče na performanse organizacije i generiše negativne ishode. Krize su uglavnom perceptualne. Ako stejkholderi veruju da postoji kriza, organizacija je u krizi, izuzev ako predstavnici organizacije ne mogu da ubede stejkholdere da kriza ne postoji. Krize su neobični negativni događaji koji se ne mogu predvideti, ali se očekuju.

Faktori koji se posebno ističu u datoj definiciji krize veoma se razlikuju, pošto odražavaju različite aspekte – kako uzroka, tako i rešenja. Često se koncept krize proširuje kako bi uključio ne samo opis događaja i kako se upravlja njime, nego i njegov efekat na članove organizacije i ostale stejkholdere. Istina, mnogi autori se slažu da situacija postaje kriza kada je jedna ili više grupa stejkholdera primeti kao takvu. Jedan aspekt koji se različito posmatra od strane različitih autora je vremenska dinamika krize (engl. timing), gde kriza počinje, a gde se završava. Postavlja se pitanje: „Da li krizu definiše neko sa strane ili pojedinac ili više njih koji su direktno uključeni unutar organizacije?“.

Reagujući dalje na ova pitanja dinamike i upozorenja na krizu, istraživači su definisali krizu prema njenim psihološkim atributima, posebno po tome kako bi se osećali ako bi bili uključeni u krizu sa aspekta menadžera. Tri psihološka pitanja koja pritiskaju menadžere koji se suočavaju sa krizom su: ekstremni vremenski pritisak da se deluje, nedostatak jasnoće u vezi sa tim koju je akciju najbolje preduzeti i element iznenađenja. Definicija krize koju daju Pearson i Clair (1998) slično naglašava subjektivnu percepciju organizacione krize: „Organizaciona kriza je situacija

sa malom verovatnoćom i visokim uticajem za koju kritični stejkholderi smatraju da ugrožava održivost organizacije i koju ovi pojedinci doživljavaju subjektivno doživljava kao lično i društveno ugrožavanje“ (str. 66).

Mnogi autori su notirali paradoks koji je prisutan u krizi: simultani potencijal i za destrukciju i za zgodnu priliku. Postavlja se pitanje: „Da li je kriza preduzeća opasnost ili šansa?“, odnosno, preciznije: „Da li je kriza preduzeća smrtna presuda za preduzeće ili njegova velika šansa?“ Pojam krize obično ima negativnu konotaciju, smatra se nečim nepoželjnim (opasnost), ali je možemo shvatiti i kao dobrodošlu priliku za novi početak. Krizu ne možemo posmatrati samo kao nešto što je samo po sebi negativno, nego i kao šansu za promenu. Kriza je ambivalentan proces, čiji je ishod nemoguće u potpunosti unapred (ex ante) odrediti. Ona ima kako destruktivno, tako i konstruktivno dejstvo. Švajcarski arhitekta i pisac Max Frisch jednom je rekao: „Kriza može biti produktivno stanje. Mora joj se samo oduzeti neprijatan ukus katastrofe“. (Neujahr i Wienand, 2010, str. 7) Ponekad se prigovara protiv aspekta neplaniranog i neželjenog nastanka krize preduzeća, uz napomenu da krize (preduzeća) mogu biti i sasvim poželjne, kao što i Šumpeter uočava u procesu industrijske promene, koji naziva stvaralačkim razaranjem (kreativnom destrukcijom), „koji neprekidno revolucionizuje ekonomsku strukturu *iznutra*, stalno uništavajući staru, stalno stvarajući novu“. (Šumpeter, 1960, str. 128) Kriza tako stvara osnovu za inovacije i razara okoštalu strukturu. Skoro svaka kriza sadrži u sebi seme uspeha, kao i korene neuspeha. Pronalaženje, kultivisanje i žetva tog potencijalnog uspeha je suština kriznog menadžmenta. A suština pogrešnog kriznog menadžmenta je sklonost ka prihvatanju loše situacije i njeno činjenje još gorom (Augustine, 1995, str. 148). Treba imati na umu da kriza ne mora da znači samo opasnost. U krizi leži šansa da se preduzeće obnovi i temeljno usmeri u novom, pozitivnom smeru. Kriza je time pokretač inicijative da se prekine sa zastarelim, prevaziđenim načinom ponašanja i tako postavi kamen temeljac za budući uspeh preduzeća.

Kineski znak (komponovan od dva simbola) koji ima isto značenje kao i reč kriza je „Weiji“. Formiran je od prvih slova za opasnost „Weixian“ i korišćenje zgodne prilike „Jihui“. Ova kompozicija reči jasno reflektuje stvarne karakteristike krize (Glaesser, 2006, str. 12; Sellnow i Seeger, 2013, str. 8). Zapadni pogled na krizu deli ovu ambivalentnost, sa većinom definicija krize koje se pozivaju na ovu dualnost. S tim u vezi se često postavlja se pitanje: „Da li je čaša pola puna ili pola prazna?“ Zavisi od toga kako se stvar posmatra.

Pesimista gleda na teškoće u mogućnosti, a optimista traga za mogućnostima u teškoći. Otuda Fearn-Banks (2007, str. 6-7) definiše krizu kao „značajan događaj sa potencijalno negativnim ishodom koji utiče na organizaciju, kompaniju ili industriju, kao i na njenu javnost, proizvode, usluge ili dobar imidž“. Kriza prekida normalne poslovne transakcije i ponekad može da ugrozi egzistenciju organizacije. Kriza može biti štrajk, terorizam, požar, bojkot, greška na proizvodu, neuspeh proizvoda ili brojni drugi događaji. Veličina organizacije je irelevantna, jer svaki tip organizacije – od malog preduzeća do multinacionalne korporacije – je podložan krizi. Međutim, Fearn-Banks (2007) takođe napominje da uspešan menadžment krize, i komunikacija u vezi sa tim, može čak da poboljša reputaciju organizacije.

Šta se, zapravo, podrazumeva pod krizom? Ako se podsetimo porekla reči, onda se može napraviti skup mogućih karakteristika koje su svojstvene fenomenu krize i istovremeno mogu biti od pomoći pri orijentaciji za tumačenje sadržaja pojma kriza. Specifična svojstva krize mogu još više da preciziraju ovde interesantan fenomen krize nego što to mogu definicije. Za sveobuhvatnu definiciju pojma krize preduzeća od značaja su i sledeći elementi pojma: 1) ugrožavanje egzistencije, 2) ambivalentnost ishoda, 3) ugrožavanje dominantnih ciljeva, 4) procesni karakter, 5) problematika upravljanja, 6) iznenađenje, 7) pritisak vremena/stres, 8) neodređenost (nejasnoća), 9) smanjena mogućnost delovanja i 10) moć metamorfoze. Dok svojstva od 1 do 5 i 10 karakterišu sve krize preduzeća, svojstva od 6 do 9 pogađaju samo određene faze krize i stoga nisu pogodna za generalno obeležavanje kriza preduzeća (Krystek i Moldenhausner, 2007, str. 26-28; Krystek, 1987, str. 6; Glaesser, 2006, str. 13-14). Ove karakteristike izdvajaju krizu od drugih neželjenih događaja. Uznemiravajući događaj ne može dostići nivo krize ako se ne pojavi kao iznenađenje, noseći sa sobom ozbiljan nivo opasnosti i zahtevajući kratko vreme za reagovanje.

Ako se želi da se kriza preduzeća bliže opiše i empirijski obuhvati, onda je neophodna njena operacionalizacija – dakle, da se apstraktni pojam „kriza preduzeća“ učini merljivim. Za to se, između ostalog, koristi pet indikatora – dakle merljivih veličina kao zamena za fenomen „kriza preduzeća“ koji nije neposredno merljiv. Ti indikatori krize su: situacija krize, uzroci krize, tok krize, faze krize i dejstva krize. Ovde ćemo detaljno govoriti samo o toku krize (vidi više u Senić, 1996; Senić i Senić, 2015).

2. ELEMENTARNI TIPOVI KRIZA PREMA VREMENSKOM TRAJANJU KRIZE

Krize preduzeća se mogu shvatiti i prikazati kao procesi koji mogu imati vrlo različito vremensko trajanje i koji se mogu podeliti u više faza. Po pravilu, moguće je praviti razliku između dve do četiri faze krize. Koristeći vremenski pritisak kao kriterijum, krize se mogu podeliti na: potencijalne, latentne i akutne, pri čemu se ova poslednja može dalje raščlaniti na akutne savladive i akutne nesavladive krize. Ako se posmatra vremenska distanca između nastanka negativnog događaja i percepcije kritične situacije, moguće je praviti razliku između kriza sa brzim i sporim nastankom. Krize koje brzo nastaju se zbog iznenadne promene brže otkrivaju, nego što je slučaj sa onima koje nastaju sporo. Kao ekstremne forme navode se procesi krize koji su dugotrajni, koji se postepeno ubrzavaju i procesi krize koji nastupaju munjevito, sa ostrim ubrzanjem i ekstremno kratkim trajanjem procesa, kao što je npr. slučaj sa požarom, poplavom i sličnim nepogodama. Seymour i Moore (2000, str. 10) koriste zmiyu kao metaforu da argumentuju da se krize pojavljuju u dve forme:

- kobra - „iznenadna“ kriza - ovo je nesreća koja pogađa iznenada i zatiče kompaniju potpuno nespremnu, iznenađenu i ostavlja je u kriznoj situaciji,
- piton - „sporo-goruća ili tinjajuća“ kriza ili „pu-zanje krize“, gomilanje problema koji se jedan po jedan prikrajavaju kompaniji i polako je slamaju.

Obe imaju za posledicu urušavanje imidža preduzeća. Iznenadna kriza je kriza koja dolazi bez bilo kakve najave. To mogu biti prirodne nepogode kao što su zemljotresi, poplave, požari, trovanje hranom. Puzajuća kriza se može odnositi na seksualno uznemiravanje od strane pretpostavljenih, narušavanje bezbednosti što može imati za rezultat kazne ili nelegalne akcije, kršenje zdravstvenih normi i kršenje pravila ponašanja u slučaju požara. Kompanije i njihov menadžment treba da se ograniče na one krize koje imaju šansu da se dogode i formulišu planove za slučajeve da se one dogode. Hoteli, na primer, treba da imaju protivpožarni plan, a zaposleni treba da znaju šta da rade u slučaju izbijanja požara. Hoteli u područjima gde su zemljotresi česta pojava, treba da imaju plan u slučaju zemljotresa. Puzajuće krize se mogu često eliminisati sa dobrim menadžmentom, jer one daju nagoveštaje i opominju dovoljno pre nego što se dogode. Dobra sanitarna praksa smanjuje rizik serviranja zagađene hrane. Hoteli koji su obučili sve zaposlene da budno

motre na sumnjive akcije i o tome obaveštavaju službu obezbeđenja mogu da smanje rizik krađe stvari ili novca gostiju hotela.

Iznenadna (neočekivana) kriza (kobra) je nastup potpuno nepredvidive, teške situacije, na koju preduzeće nije računalo gotovo ni u kom slučaju i ni u kom momentu. U ovom slučaju preduzeće treba iz prvog puta da proceni da li se radi o akutnoj krizi ili samo o maloj smetnji. Pošto kod iznenadnih kriza ne preostaje nimalo vremena za preventivno delovanje, ova vrsta krize se sa svom snagom obrušava na imidž preduzeća. Ovde je u pitanju brza i profesionalna reakcija preduzeća, da bi štete koje time mogu da nastanu bile što je moguće manje.

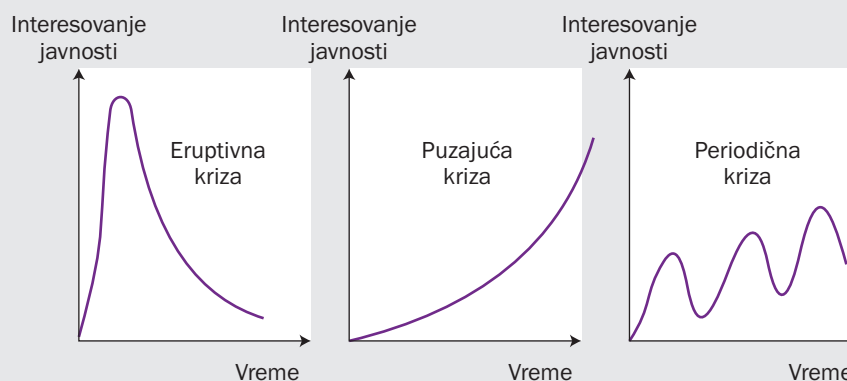
Spontano nastupajuće krize se nazivaju i „krize iznenađenja“ i „krize preko noći“. One su u osnovi nepredvidive i većinom nastupaju na najosetljivijim mestima. Primeri za to su teroristički napad na Njujork 11. septembra 2001. godine, kao i cunami katastrofa u jugoistočnoj Aziji u decembru 2004. godine. (Bundesministerium des Innern, 2008, str. 9) Iznenadne krize su često povezane sa skandalima i velikim interesovanjem medija.

Dugotrajna, spora, razvučena, pritajena, puzajuća kriza (piton) nastaje preko problema koji se stalno odlažu. Konflikti, kojima je jednostavno potrebno rešenje, se ne rešavaju tokom dužeg perioda i tako se stalno dalje nagomilavaju. Puzajuće krize imaju svoje uzroke u organizaciji. Često ostaju skrivene od javnosti, u najmanju ruku sve do momenta kada se dostigne vrednost praga i problem ne može više da se prikriva. Javni interes biva ugrožen i od tog trenutka se kriza i problemi vezani za nju više ne mogu stavljati po strani.

Najveći problem kod pritajene krize je momenat izbijanja. On se ne može uočiti i time je, ako ne u potpunosti, ono bar delom iznenađujući. Prednost puzajuće krize, nasuprot iznenadne, je u najmanju ruku neznan manevarski prostor tokom razvoja krize. Zahvaljujući tome što je problem najduže poznat, u ovoj fazi postoji šansa da se putem odgovarajuće komunikacije rizika otklone glavne posledice po preduzeće.

Kao dopunski, egzistira još jedan tip krize: kriza u obliku talasa. (Bundesministerium des Innern, 2008, str. 9) To su krize koje se periodično ponavljaju, sa rastućom tendencijom javnog interesa. Uzroci za ovaj tok su, između ostalog, nedostajuća (kritička) analiza sa prevencijom i zauzdavanjem zbivanja događaja, kao i nedovoljna ocena. Primer za to su npr. nesreće sa putničkim autobusima. Ako se gomilaju, odnosno učestalo se ponavljaju nesrećni slučajevi, i mediji će o tome stalno izveštavati. Ovoj temi će se posvećivati cele emisije. Ukazaće se na to koliko su opasne vožnje

SLIKA 1. Tokovi krize iz ugla interesovanja javnosti



Izvor: Töpfer (1999, str. 275, citirano prema Mahlbacher i Schön, 2009, str. 25).

autobusom i da mnogi vozači autobusa potpuno premoreni sedaju za volan. To stalno vodi ka nesrećnim slučajevima sa smrtnim ishodom i teškim povredama.

Sve ove negativne udarne vesti doprineće tome da, zbog ovog izveštavanja, značajno opadne tražnja za vožnjom autobusom, naročito u prevozu na dugim relacijama. Posledice su značajni padovi prodaje i time snažne krize u autobuskim preduzećima. Ova kriza ima oblik talasa, jer ona uvek iznova jenjava. Ako je medijska buka o toj temi prošla, opet će se rezervisati vožnje, ali samo do sledeće autobuske nesreće, ukoliko ona pobudi pažnju u izveštavanju.

Töpfer (1999, str. 275-276; citirano prema: Mahlbacher i Schön, 2009, str. 25-26), slično, razlikuje različite vrste kriza u zavisnosti od toka javnog interesovanja: eruptivna kriza, tinjajuća (puzajuća, prikradajuća, prikrivena, pritajena) kriza i periodična kriza. Tokovi krize iz ugla interesovanja javnosti prikazani su na slici 1.

Eruptivna kriza je svakako najčešći slučaj u praksi. Ona se karakteriše vrlo brzo rastućim stepenom javnog interesovanja, koji se po dostizanju najviše tačke takođe vrlo brzo opet smanjuje. Poseban zahtev za odgovorne je blagovremeno otklanjanje eruptivne krize. Stoga se kriza mora spoznati u trenutku u kojem je interesovanje javnosti još uvek na niskom nivou. Kontramerama se može unekoliko uticati na tok, da se najviša tačka interesovanja javnosti može da drži na neznatnom nivou. To svakako pretpostavlja vrlo visok nivo kompetencije aktera koji u tome učestvuju i kratk period odlučivanja.

Tinjajuća kriza je već opisana. Ona se karakteriše sporo stvarajućim javnim interesovanjem. Otuda organizacija jedva da može ranije da preduzme kontramere, pošto javnost u vezi sa datom temom još uvek nije putem opširnog izveštavanja postala na nju osetljiva. Time se otežava uticanje na tok krize.

Kod periodične krize postoji stalan porast i opadanje interesovanja javnosti, pri čemu se svaka sledeća najviša tačka interesovanja javnosti pojavljuje na sve višem nivou. Prema tome, periodična kriza se može razumeti kao nizanje jedne za drugom više eruptivnih kriza, pri čemu kod svakog gubljenja opšteg interesovanja novi uzročnik ponovo izaziva porast istog. U ovom slučaju moglo bi se tvrditi da preduzeće ne ostvaruje nikakav efekat učenja i na taj način ne sprovodi bilo kakve mere za savladavanje krize i preventivno sprečavanje krize.

Generalno se može smatrati da u praksi preduzeća najčešće nastupaju usporene krize. Ovo ukazuje i na važnost prevencije krize i funkcionišućeg menadžmenta problemima (engl. issue management).

3. KRIZNO KOMUNICIRANJE

Odavno je poznato da je krizno komuniciranje suština uspešnog kriznog menadžmenta i da može da igra kritičnu ulogu tokom celog procesa. Krizno komuniciranje je centralna, kritična komponenta, srž kriznog menadžmenta. Komunikacija je uvek dobra samo onoliko koliko je razumete i kako je shvatate. Neki komunikaciju firme porede sa krvotokom, jer ona prenosi kulturu preduzeća. Otuda se komunikacija može posmatrati kao bitan instrument i kao strategijski faktor uspeha u savladavanju krize: komunikacija čini krizni menadžment, pod određenim okolnostima, menadžmentom šansi. Komunikacija u krizi jeste rizična, ali je, čini se, još rizičnije nemati nikakvu komunikaciju. Kriza ili pretnja krize kreira potrebu za informacijama. Preko komuniciranja, informacije se prikupljaju, procesuiraju u znanje i dele sa drugima. Svaka faza procesa kriznog menadžmenta ima sopstvene zahteve za kreiranjem i deljenjem znanja - po-

trebu za prikupljanjem i interpretiranjem informacija. Korišćenjem tri faze kriznog menadžmenta (faza pre krize, faza reagovanja na krizu, faza komuniciranja posle krize) identifikujemo različite „tipove“ kriznog komuniciranja.

Krizno komuniciranje bi se moglo definisati u širem smislu kao prikupljanje, obrada i širenje informacija koje su potrebne za usmeravanje na kriznu situaciju. Faze krize definišu zadatke komuniciranja. U situaciji pre krize (faza pre krize ili faza inkubacije), krizno komuniciranje se fokusira na prikupljanje informacija o rizicima krize, donošenje odluka o tome kako da se upravlja potencijalnom krizom i obučavanje ljudi koji će biti involvirani u proces kriznog menadžmenta. Obučavanje obuhvata članove kriznog tima, krizne portparole i svakog pojedinca koji hoće da pomogne svojim reagovanjem. Tokom akutne faze ili faze krize, krizno komuniciranje obuhvata prikupljanje i obradu informacija koje su potrebne kriznom timu za odlučivanje zajedno sa kreiranjem i širenjem kriznih poruka ljudima van tima (tradicionalna definicija kriznog komuniciranja). Faza posle krize obuhvata analiziranje aktivnosti kriznog menadžmenta, komuniciranje neophodnih promena pojedincima i, ako je potrebno, obezbeđivanje praćenja kriznih poruka.

Danas se podrazumeva da krizno komuniciranje pokriva sve od strategija prevencije i pripreme pre krize do strategija ocene posle krize. U različitim fazama krize cilj komuniciranja je da se smanji neizvesnost vezana za reagovanje, razrešenje, negativne posledice, percepciju javnosti i odgovornost za situaciju. U istraživanju odnosa sa javnošću, koncept kriznog komuniciranja se tradicionalno odnosio na pokušaje portparola da odgovori na interesovanje i kritike široke javnosti i medija pokazane prema organizaciji i smanji negativne uticaje na poslovanje. U situaciji vanrednog stanja, krizno komuniciranje se odnosi na informacije o opasnosti u pitanju i kako ljudi mogu sami sebi da pomognu, npr. čuvanjem svojih života, zdravlja i imovine. Prema tome, krizno komuniciranje bi moglo da se definiše kao slanje i primanje poruka koje objavljuju specifičan događaj, identifikuju njegove verovatne posledice i ishode kao i obezbeđuju specifične informacije za smanjenje štete za pogođene zajednice na častan, iskren, brz, tačan i kompletan način (Vos et al., 2011, str. 17).

Fearn-Banks (2007, str. 7) kaže da je krizno komuniciranje dijalog između organizacije i njene javnosti pre, tokom i posle negativnog događaja. Oblikuju se detalji strategije i taktike dijaloga da bi se minimizirala šteta za imidž organizacije. Uspešni krizni menadžment obuhvata krizno komuniciranje koje ne

samo da može da ublaži ili eliminiše krizu, nego ponekad može organizaciji i da donese još veću pozitivnu reputaciju nego što je imala pre krize.

UNWTO (2011, str. 5) navodi da su krizne komunikacije proces, kada je kriza već počela, pomoću kojeg se umanjuju negativne posledice za organizaciju i zainteresovanu stranu za koju je organizacija odgovorna. Proces krizne komunikacije zahteva momentalne odluke i protivmere koristeći sva raspoloživa sredstva za komunikaciju kako bi se razvoj krize usmerio u pozitivnom smeru i na nju uticalo koliko god je moguće. Komunikacija u krizi nastoji da objasni određeni događaj, identifikuje verovatne posledice i ishode i pruži određene informacije za smanjenje štete pogođenim zajednicama na pošten, otvoren, brz, tačan i kompletan način. Po mišljenju Dreyer et al. (2001, str. 37) cilj kriznog komuniciranja je ograničavanje štete, brzo i objektivno informisanje javnosti, kao i istinito prenošenje gledišta preduzeća i pridobijanje poverenja javnosti.

Slično ovome, navodi se da su ciljevi kriznog komuniciranja: (Bundesministerium des Innern, 2008, str. 14)

- neodložno, transparentno, stručno i istinito izveštavanje (medija) i informisanje stanovništva o uzrocima, dejstvima i posledicama krize; kao i
- učvršćivanje poverenja i kredibiliteta da bi se time omogućilo uspešno savladavanje krize i izbegla eskalacija krize, moguće čak i kriza u medijima.

4. STRATEGIJE KOMUNIKACIJE

Postoje različite strategije prema kojima bi trebalo graditi komunikaciju u krizi neke organizacije. One mogu da variraju u zavisnosti od jačine krize i filozofije preduzeća: monolog ili dijalog, ofanzivna ili defanzivna komunikacija, aktivna ili pasivna komunikacija (Bundesministerium des Innern, 2008, str. 16-17).

Kao prvo postavlja se pitanje, da li pri komunikaciji sa spoljnim auditorijumom treba da se vodi monolog ili dijalog. Pri tome treba imati u vidu da u akutnoj fazi krize malo vremena preostaje za lične razgovore. Naravno, važno je da se razgovara sa novinarima. Za tu svrhu su pogodne konferencije za štampu, pošto se odjednom ostvaruje dijalog sa mnogo novinara. U takvoj situaciji na prvom mestu je hitno, neodložno prenošenje informacija, kao i prikazivanje mera za ograničavanje štete.

Drugo važno strategijsko pitanje odnosi se na aktivnu ili pasivnu komunikaciju. Pošto kriza nije predvidi-

va već dolazi neočekivano, upravo se tu javlja jedan od najvećih problema komunikacije u krizi - aktuelnost. Odgovorni za organizaciju treba da daju odgovor do određenog roka, do kojeg ni oni sami još uvek nemaju dovoljno pouzdane informacije. Otuda ovaj problem treba komunicirati sa ukazivanjem na hitno prenošenje informacija, čim ove budu na raspolaganju. Da bi se zadobilo poverenje javnosti, organizacija treba da sledi aktivnu i ofanzivnu strategiju komunikacije. To obuhvata redovne, vremenski utvrđene aktualizacije, konferencije za štampu itd. Pri tome treba objasniti da se zvanične („službene“) informacije mogu davati samo od zvanično imenovanih mesta. Komuniciranje u organizaciji, ne često i samostalno, koristiće i druge, manje pouzdane izvore. ((Bundesministerium des Innern, 2008, str. 16-17)

U slučaju akutne krize preduzeće se može odlučiti ili da ćuti ili da komunicira sa svojim okruženjem. Dok je ranije preovladavao moto „Govoriti je srebro, ćutati je zlato“, sadašnji zahtev glasi: više otvorenosti, transparentnosti i komunikacije. Paradigma se menja u „Ćutati je srebro, govoriti je zlato“ (Benedikt, 2015, str. 469-478). Upravo u društvima, u kojima se greške sankcionišu, postoji tendencija da se ne preuzima nikakva javna odgovornost za pogrešno stanje stvari. Umesto toga od interesa je da se osporava, poriče lično pogrešno ponašanje, svaljuje na treću stranu ili prećutkuje. Ako se organizacija odluči za ćutanje, onda se u potpunosti ukida kontrola komunikacije. Ako organizacija ne daje nikakve informacije, onda komuniciraju drugi. To su, po pravilu, pre svih novinari. Ako novinari ne dobiju informacije direktno od predstavnika za štampu krizom pogođene organizacije, onda im se ostavlja mogućnost da do tih informacija dođu na drugi način. Upravo u slučaju krize novinari će, pored eventualno datih informacija od strane krizom pogođene organizacije, snažno posegnuti za drugim izvorima, da bi dali što je moguće „objektivniju“ sliku situacije. Jasno je da organizacija „koja ćuti“ ne poseduje nikakav značajan uticaj na izveštavanje štampe. Otuda ćutanje organizacije u situaciji akutne krize predstavlja najnepovoljniji način ponašanja. Javnost interpretira ovu vrstu ponašanja kao da organizacija nešto krije. Zbog toga se ćutanje, po pravilu, tretira kao prikrivanje krivice. Organizacija prepušta oblast informisanja medijima i tako propušta šansu da o krizi informiše javnost iz svog ugla – što kreira spiralu ćutanja (Dreyer et al., 2001, str. 137; Ehmke, 2006, str. 46-47).

Ako se organizacija odluči za komunikaciju sa javnošću, onda se mogu razlikovati strategije defanzivne i ofanzivne komunikacije. Kod izbora strategije kri-

znog komuniciranja od posebnog značaja je odluka za ofanzivnu ili defanzivnu komunikaciju. Izbor vrste komunikacije zavisi od situacije i jedva da se može unapred utvrditi. U okviru savladavanja krize mogu se navesti razlozi koji apsolutno govore u prilog defanzivne komunikacije. Pa ipak, u ovim slučajevima trebalo bi jasno navesti razloge za to.

Važno je da se ne prekida tok informacija. Mnoge organizacije nisu pripremljene za nastup krize. Nedostaje krizni štab, improvizuje se, niko se ne brine za medije i u svakoj prilici kažu „bez komentara“. Ova vrsta destruktivne komunikacije nosi u sebi opasnost nepouzdanosti, neubedljivosti, neuverljivosti. Lako se stvara osećaj da nešto treba prikriti. Ovo neizbežno vodi do glasina, spekulacija i ponekad do pogrešnog izveštavanja. Svaki dalji impuls vodi ka intenziviranju teme u javnosti. Pod strategijom defanzivne komunikacije podrazumeva se fragmentarno prenošenje informacija ili čak osporavanje određenog stanja stvari. Pri tom se radi o dva apsolutno „smrtna greha“ komunikacije u krizi (Ehmke, 2006, str. 47): laganju i obelodanjivanju istine „deo po deo“. Osnovni problemi koji proističu iz laganja su verovatnoća, da će javnost u nekom kasnijem momentu saznati istinu, je relativno visoka. Ako se to dogodi, poverenje javnosti u organizaciju je uništeno na nesagledivo dug period. Ovo ne dovodi samo do značajnog gubitka imidža, već u najgorem slučaju može da znači bankrotiranje organizacije, kada se njeni proizvodi svesno bojkotuju kao direktna posledica gubitka imidža ili se povlače investitori. Sa druge strane, obelodanjivanje istine podrazumeva postupak da se istina saopštava samo „deo po deo“ isto tako u većini slučajeva vodi do velikog gubitka poverenja. Može se stvoriti utsak da organizacija uvek javno saopštava samo ono što je već i onako poznato.

Ofanzivna strategija predstavlja suštinsku suprotnost defanzivnoj strategiji komunikacije. Cilj ofanzivne strategije je da se javnost aktivno, otvoreno, jasno, blagovremeno i istinito informiše o postojećem stanju stvari i uspostavi odnos poverenja između organizacije i njenih ciljnih grupa. Organizacija pokazuje potpunu transparentnost i otvorenost. Važno je napomenuti da je organizacija aktivna u komunikaciji, što znači da se informacije objavljuju ne tek pod pritiskom javnosti, nego na sopstvenu inicijativu organizacije, da ih ona sama bira i da tako može da utiče na tok informacija. Ako organizacija reaguje na krizu tek posle toga što je ova već pobudila veliko interesovanje javnosti, ona se time u potpunosti podređuje defanzivnoj taktici. Strategija otvorene komunikacije može, naprotiv,

dovesti do stvaranja odnosa poverenja kao i preduprediti moguću lošu sliku.

Kroz ofanzivnu komunikaciju zadovoljavaju se potrebe javnosti za informacijama. Uz to, ofanzivno ophođenje sa krizom jača kredibilitet organizacije. Pri tom je korisno, ukoliko je to u odnosnoj fazi moguće, pripremiti se za krizu i relevantnim ciljnim grupama pojasniti uzroke i posledice krize. Ofanzivna komunikacija postaje problematična svakako onda, kada organizacija ima na raspolaganju samo netačne informacije i zbog toga nije moguće dati potpuno objašnjenje javnosti. Ako je to slučaj, onda organizacija treba da kao svoj najviši cilj (prioritet) formuliše svoju spremnost za što je brže moguće razjašnjenje stanja stvari. Prema tome, informacije treba proslediti medijima uz ogradu da ovi podaci odgovaraju sadašnjem stanju saznanja. Preuranjene izjave mogu inače brzo da se pokažu kao „uzaludne mere spašavanja“, ako se kasnije pokažu kao pogrešne (Ehmke, 2006, str. 47-48).

5. RAZGRANIČENJE TIPOVA KOMUNIKACIJE: KOMUNIKACIJA RIZIKA I KOMUNIKACIJA U KRIZI

Komunikacija rizika je razmena mišljenja i informacija o rizicima između odgovornih za ocenu rizika, upravljanje rizikom, naučnicima i drugim učesnicima (privreda, potrošači, mediji i drugi zainteresovani za krizu). U okviru kriznog menadžmenta pojam se shvata šire. On obuhvata i proaktivno informisanje stanovništva i medija o rizicima i javlja se pre nego što uopšte nastane kriza. Komuniciranje u krizi je strategija menadžmenta, koja se koristi kod akutne krize i, prema tome, je parcijalno područje savladavanja krize. Cilj komuniciranja u krizi je da, uprkos visokog pritiska vremena tokom krize, može da uspostavi neophodnu komunikaciju između učesnika u savladavanju krize (Bundesministerium des Innern, 2008, str. 17).

Glaesser (2003, str. 224-227; 2006, str. 208-209) smatra da se, u kontekstu negativnih događaja, može

praviti razlika između dva osnovna tipa komunikacija: komunikacija rizika i komunikacija u krizi. Komunikacija rizika sledi dugoročan pristup, čiji je cilj stvaranje poverenja i shvatanje konteksta rizika. Istovremeno, komunikacija rizika isto tako može da cilja na skretanje pažnje na rizike koji inače ne bi bili uzeti u razmatranje.

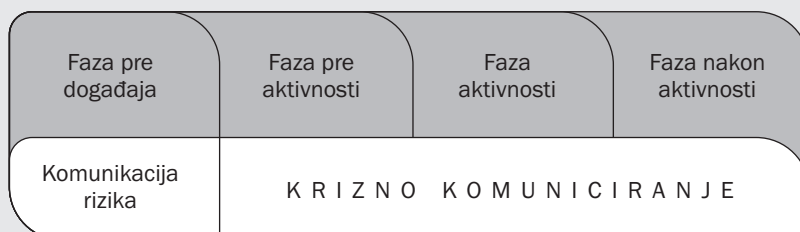
Komunikacija u krizi, s druge strane, počinje iznenada. Ona opisuje pokušaj, nakon što se dogodio negativan događaj, da se minimiziraju njegove posledice instrumentima politike komuniciranja i svedu na takav stepen da se zadrži kredibilitet za aktivnosti ponovnog lansiranja proizvoda.

Ako se razmotre faze aktivnosti obe forme komunikacije, komunikacija rizika se nalazi u fazi pre izbijanja, dok se komunikacija krize javlja samo posle početka negativnog događaja, pre svega u aktivnoj fazi (slika 2).

Pošto se događa u fazi pre krize, komunikacija rizika ima preventivni karakter. Koristi se sa ciljem da se izbegnu negativni događaji ili umanje njihove posledice. Komunikacija u krizi je oblik komunikacije koji se inicira iznenada i zavisi od razvoja negativnog događaja. Staregija za borbu protiv krize odlučuje o tome da li će se ona inicirati neposredno posle događaja ili se neznatno odložiti, tj. kada nastupi aktivna komunikacija u krizi. Sama komunikacija u krizi, s druge strane, ima defanzivni karakter. Inicijativa za ovu komunikaciju dolazi ne od pogođene kompanije ili organizacije, nego je izazvana događajem. Ovaj defanzivni aspekt je isto nezavisan bilo da je ili ne organizacija bila pripremljena za krizu.

Komunikacija u krizi se takođe razlikuje od normalne komunikacije zbog njenih povećanih kvantitativnih i kvalitativnih zahteva. Kvantitativni zahtevi se povećavaju zbog toga što, s jedne strane, postoji povećana potreba za informacijama od strane onih koji su zainteresovani za organizaciju, a s druge strane, proširuje se krug onih koji traže informacije. Sa tog stanovišta, komunikacija u krizi je takođe masovna komunikacija, koja je mnogo više od komunikacije sa medijima.

SLIKA 2. Komunikacija rizika u odnosu na komunikaciju krize



Izvor: Glaesser, 2006, str. 209

Veći kvalitativni zahtevi za komunikacijom su rezultat posebne pažnje koja se posvećuje organizaciji. To čini nužnom komunikaciju koja je logična, precizna i oslobođena od kontradikcija, barem tokom krize.

Mada se defanzivni karakter komunikacije u krizi ne može ukloniti putem pripreme, poznavanje određenih kvantitativnih i kvalitativnih zahteva utiče na to da li se komunikacija klasifikuje kao panična ili plan-ska komunikacija.

6. DVOSTRUKI ZNAČAJ PR U OKVIRU KRIZNOG MENADŽMENTA I KRIZNOG KOMUNICIRANJA

PR u okvirima kriznog menadžmenta i kriznog komuniciranja ima dvostruku ulogu. Krizni menadžment se može, s jedne strane, posmatrati kao parcijalni koncept, odnosno respektivni element integrisanog PR menadžmenta. S druge strane, PR, u formi kriznog PR-a, čini integrisanu komponentu kriznog menadžmenta (Landert, 2003, str. 52-159).

Komunikacija u krizi zauzima značajno mesto u literaturi iz oblasti PR-a. Glavni aspekti su: uloga PR-a u kriznom menadžmentu; studije slučajeva; planovi komunikacije u krizi; i teorije kako da organizacija reaguje na krizu. Uloga PR-a u kriznom menadžmentu postaje sve važnija. U okviru PR-a interesantne su, pre svega, takve krize koje se karakterišu gubitkom poverenja i društvene prihvatljivosti. Step en takve krize poverenja ili imidža može se pratiti npr. preko promene imidža tokom vremena.

Teorije o komunikaciji u krizi u PR literaturi odnose se generalno na reagovanje u komunikaciji u krizi, a ne na formu pripremljenosti za slučaj krize. Teorija „korporativne odbrane“ (Hearit, 2001, str. 595-605) obuhvata ispitivanje postkriznog reagovanja kao odbrane. Naglašava upravljanje opasnošću kreiranom uverljivim napadom protiv organizacije. Fokusira se na izvinjavanje zbog pogrešnog ponašanja ili akcije. Nudi listu strategija komunikacije koje organizacija može da koristi da bi reagovala na optužbe za pogrešno ili loše ponašanje ili delovanje. Strategije komunikacije obuhvataju: demantovanje, kontranapad, diferencijaciju, izvinjenje. Ove strategije su primarno odbrambene i uglavnom su formulisane zbog organizacije koja je odgovorna za sopstvene akcije nakon krize.

Teorija popravljanja imidža (Benoit, 1997, str. 177-186) se odnosi na ulogu komunikacije u ostvarivanju ciljeva i održavanju pozitivnog imidža organizacije. Naglašava uklanjanje opasnosti po imidž optuženog.

Fokusira se na odgovornost za akcije organizacije koje izazivaju krizu. Karakteriše se strategijama komunikacije za upravljanje odgovornošću.

Rasprava o teoriji obnove organizacije sugerise da kriza može biti povoljna prilika (imati konstruktivno dejstvo) za organizaciju da bolje sebe pozicionira putem strategijske komunikacije. Naglašava mogućnosti da se uči i raste iz krize. Fokusira se na kreiranje povoljnih prilika koje su svojstvene kriznim događajima. Karakteriše se liderstvom i smernicama za komunikaciju organizacije, naglašava snažno pozitivne vrednosti, optimističku perspektivu i učenje da bi se prevazišla kriza. Teorija haosa (Murphy, 1996, str. 95-113) rasvetljava uticaj malih varijansi u netradicionalnim, neracionalnim sistemima plus nepredvidivost i neanticiplanost ishoda.

I strategijski menadžment i PR literatura ukazuju na svrhu kriznog menadžmenta kada se štiti reputacija organizacije. Reputacija se smatra dragocenim resursom. Prema tome, potrebno je da se njome efikasno upravlja. Identifikovanje stejkholdera i uspostavljanje odnosa kroz komunikaciju je veoma bitno pre nastupanja krize. Komunikacija tokom i posle krize pomaže da se smanji šteta po reputaciju organizacije i doprinosi oporavku celog preduzeća.

Pojam krizni PR je danas svuda prisutan. Brojne publikacije sa bave njime. Krizni PR se u vezi sa tim primenjuje pretežno kao sinonim za krizno komuniciranje. Pri tom se postavlja pitanje da li je uopšte legitimno govoriti o nekom specijalnom kriznom PR-u. U okviru prakse PR-a pojam je sporan, pošto mnoštvo PR menadžera konstatuje da tzv. „krizni PR“ podleže istim zakonitostima kao i svakodnevni PR. Otuda, PR mora da bude sastavni deo preduzeća već u „normalnom stanju“ da bi uopšte osigurao komunikaciju u kriznim situacijama. Jer ako preduzeće posegne za sredstvima komunikacije samo u slučaju krize, onda je vrlo verovatan neuspeh u komunikaciji. Uputno je na ovom mestu setiti se napred date definicije kriznog komuniciranja od strane Fearn-Banks-a kao dijaloga između organizacije i njenih javnosti pre, za vreme i posle negativnog događaja. U tumačenju ove definicije posebno je važno to da ona ne svodi komunikaciju u krizi samo na stadijum prave krize. Sasvim je jasno da bavljenje komunikacijom - i posebno komunikacijom u situaciji krize – treba da bude sastavni deo preduzeća koji je sve vreme prisutan.

Činjenica je da specifični krizni PR kao samostalan, poseban elemenat PR-a ne postoji. Imalo bi više smisla na ovom mestu govoriti o PR-u u situaciji krize, jer krizni PR nije ništa drugo do PR u posebnoj situaciji, u kojoj se preduzeće nalazi. Negativan imidž pre-

dužeca koji je krizom nastao, ne može se eliminisati jednokratnim PR akcijama. Ako preduzeće ima negativan imidž, onda je to vrlo težak i dugotrajan proces da se takvoj negativnoj slici stvorenoj u eksternoj javnosti ponovo dodaju pozitivne asocijacije. Otuda, cilj „svakodnevnog“ PR-a mora biti da spreči već nastajanje negativno ispoljenog imidža.

Uspešan krizni PR ne počinje tek sa nastupom krize, već treba da se pokaže kao preventivna mera sastavnog dela (elementa) rada sa javnošću u „normalnom stanju“ preduzeća. U ovom radu, pojam krizni PR, odnosno komunikacija u krizi, se isto tako ne posmatra kao posebna PR mera. On opisuje PR mere preduzeća u situaciji krize (Ehmke, 2006, str. 44-45).

ZAKLJUČAK

Krizni menadžment je i menadžment informacijama. Uspešno savladavanje krize zahteva proaktivno i do-

sledno sprovođenje kriznog komuniciranja. Krizno komuniciranje je suštinski elemenat savladavanja krize. Preko njega preduzeće, neka druga organizacija ili institucija ima mogućnost da se predstavi eksternom okruženju. Pošto svaka kriza ima sopstvene karakteristike, ne postoji nikakav opštevažeći recept, te se pripremljeni koncepti moraju stalno prilagođavati i individualno formulisati.

Pri kriznom komuniciranju neophodno je imati u vidu niz principa za situaciju pre krize, za vreme krize i posle krize. Cilj je da se javnost brzo informiše na bazi postojećih činjenica. U slučaju krize neophodno je voditi aktivnu, blagovremenu, uverljivu i otvorenu politiku informisanja. U akutnoj fazi krize mora se govoriti jednim, istim glasom. Obim i sadržaj informacija se mora prilagoditi potrebama za informacijama i razumevanju javnosti. Treba tačno razjasniti odgovornost za slučaj krize i svako treba da prihvati deo sopstvene odgovornosti, ako ista postoji.

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Abstract:

Communication in the State of Crisis

Vladimir Senić, Radoslav Senić

Due to diversity of research related to crisis it is rather important to present definitions of various key terms related to crisis, crisis management and crisis communication, in order to establish tangible boundaries among them. Those three are mutually intertwined and should be considered starting from the first symptoms of crisis to crisis management and finally crisis communication. In the state of

crisis, conventional management practice is often not adequate, while types of reaction are insufficient. Thus, this paper gives precise definitions of crisis, crisis management and crisis communication.

Keywords: crisis, crisis communication, crisis management

Kontakt:

dr Vladimir Senić, vanredni profesor
vsenic@kg.ac.rs

Univerzitet u Kragujevcu – Fakultet za hotelijerstvo i turizam u Vrnjačkoj Banji
Vojvođanska bb, 36210 Vrnjačka Banja

Marketing Communications of Higher Education Institutions in the Republic of Serbia

Ana Popović

JEL Classification: M31, I23

INTRODUCTION

So-called “marketing revolution” (term introduced by Keith, 1960) reflected in constantly increasing importance of marketing throughout twentieth and twenty first century (Cohen & Harris, 2003) was manifested in theory through broadening the scope of marketing (Kotler & Levy, 1969; Hunt, 1976) and in practice through acceptance and implementation of marketing principles, strategies and activities in sectors in which they haven’t previously been applied, nor even familiar (Naude & Ivy, 1999). Higher education (and education in general) was among those sectors, until so called *higher education marketing* was established in 1970s as a response to the significant changes on the global market on which higher education institutions were offering their educational services to students as clients. This period was marked by expansion of higher education worldwide: increasing number of domestic and international students in search for superior higher education induced the *demand* (Kotler, 1979), and, as a response to that, new institutions and new types of institutions providing higher education were established (Doyle & Lynch, 1979; Tam, 2007; Mainardes, Alves & Domingues, 2010) shaping the *supply* on this market. With aim of directing this developing and strategically important sector, national governments worldwide launched initiatives for ensuring and enhancing quality of educational services provided by higher education institutions. These changes, related to quantitative and qualitative growth in higher education sector, influenced intensification of competition among institutions aiming to attract and retain as many students as possible. These institutions have been striving to increase market share and incomes, especially in order to compensate decreased inflows from public budget (Tapper & Salter, 1995) that followed deregulation processes in higher education sectors in many countries in the world (see: Russell, 2005).

Faced with new challenges, higher education institutions started to apply new business approaches in order to ensure survival and development on the market. As increasing competition always implies the need for more intensive application of marketing (Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka, 2006), higher education marketing was initially introduced in practice,

Abstract: In order to face increasing competition on the market and address other new challenges, higher education institutions (HEIs) started to apply new business approaches which led to the development of higher education management and marketing. As efficient marketing communications are necessary for survival and development on higher education market, topics related to this field have had a distinct place in higher education marketing since the establishment of this discipline. Various strategies and activities, types and means of marketing communications have been defined in theory. The modern tendency is their integration for achievement of communication and strategic goals.

After the review of marketing communications specifics in the mentioned context, the author presents the realized empirical research related to HEIs in the Republic of Serbia. Starting from the facts that domestic higher education market has widened relatively recently and competition has been significantly increasing since 2000, the author hypothesizes that numerous marketing communications activities are being used. The main research question is: Which types and means of marketing communications are used and how well are they integrated? The research relies on web sites of HEIs as main sources of information, as they are legally obligatory means of communication in Serbia. The author searches for other types and means which are embedded or at least mentioned on the websites, and treats that as indication of integration.

The main research findings support the assumption on use of various types and means of marketing communications, but reveal problems in integration and show that HEIs use similar activities while innovative and original means and types of marketing communications are scarce.

Key words: higher education institutions, marketing communications, competition, competitive advantage, integrated marketing communications, higher education marketing

and then theoretically conceptualized. Today, scope of research of higher education marketing is defined as “marketing principles and activities (originally developed in profit, business context –author’s note) adopted and applied in higher education institutions” (Kotler, 1979, p.40), primarily with aim to develop competitive advantage and increase market share in national and international market.

Marketing communications activities take distinct place among the marketing activities applied in higher education institutions. They are the subject matter of this study. After the short theoretical background about marketing communications in the sector of higher education, author presents analysis of marketing communication types and means deployed by higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia. The findings presented in this paper derive from empirical desk research, more precisely analysis of secondary research data sources. The content of Internet presentations (websites) of all accredited higher education institutions (HEIs) in Republic of Serbia was analyzed in order to determine which types and means of marketing communications are presented and how well they are integrated. The assumption is that all used types and means of marketing communications should be embedded or at least mentioned on the web sites which are obligatory for HEIs in Serbia. After presentation of research subject, research sample, methodology, findings and discussion, author presents limitations, directions for further research and implications for marketing researchers and practitioners.

Theoretical background: Marketing communications of higher education institutions

In the early phases of its development in practice, higher education marketing was almost exclusively related to application of marketing communications activities in this sector. More precisely, higher education marketing was dealing with possibilities for application of:

- persuasive advertising and personal selling (through direct contact with potential students) as *types* of marketing communications,
- posters, brochures, printed notifications etc. as *means* of marketing communications, or, rather – advertising, in higher education institutions (according to: Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka, 2006).

Accordingly, the development of higher education marketing theory started with publication of first manuals related to possibilities for application of various types and means of marketing communications in higher education institutions (see: e.g. Kotler & Fox,

1985, Davies & Scribbins, 1985; Keen & Warner, 1989, Gibbs & Knapp, 2001). And even though higher education marketing has been constantly evolving, including more and more activities and developing towards comprehensive, strategic approach, marketing communications remained one of the main fields of research in this discipline (Stanković & Popović, 2014, p.524). Contemporary higher education marketing recognizes all types and means which are traditionally present in “mainstream”¹ marketing (see, e.g. Kotler & Keller, 2006; Stanković & Đukić, 2014, p.51):

- both direct (i.e. personal selling and direct marketing) and indirect *types* (i.e. advertising, sales promotion, public relations and publicity, special events, Internet marketing), as well as
- print (e.g. newspapers, magazines, brochures, etc.), electronic (radio, television and Internet) and other (e.g. billboards) *means* of marketing communications.

As in mainstream marketing, the tendency in higher education marketing is towards developing integrated marketing communications (see: Edmiston, 2008; Schüller & Rašticová, 2011) including integration of all types and all means of marketing communications in order to achieve desired outcomes (Schultz, 2010), in this case to consistently and coherently transfer the messages to all the relevant groups of higher education institution’s public and to ensure their feedback.

In defining and implementing marketing communications activities in higher education institutions, common starting point is the understanding that students are not *passive* but active, i.e. rational and well informed (Niculescu, 2009) clients expected to make decisions by choosing appropriate educational programme at institutions that provide high quality of education (Baldwin & James, 2000; Grubor, 2012). This becomes clear bearing in mind how choice of educational programme influences profession, career path and future of an individual. Another related specific of higher education is the fact that majority of students take a role of a client only once (vast majority of them are students on an institution only once²),

¹ Marketing as originally developed, related to profit institutions of business, commercial sector (see, e.g. Popović, 2010).

² Exception can be found in potential cases when students study more than one programme at the same higher education institution (on the same educational level, eg. two master courses; or on successive levels – BSc, MSc and PhD programmes). But even then, students are HEI’s clients during definite period, while individuals can be clients of companies for longer periods or even be loyal to a brand or organization their whole lifetime.

while in business sector purchases and uses of most of the products and services often repeat (individuals or organizations can take a role of consumers or customers of a company numerous times and develop loyalty) (Temple & Shattock, 2007). Mentioned specifics determine behaviour of students as users of higher education services, and influence creating and implementing marketing strategies in higher education sector. Namely, selection of higher education institution and programme represents a type of *purchase* characterized by intensive engagement of *consumer or client* – in this context – prospective student. In these situations, clients highly value and take into consideration information provided through marketing communications activities (see: e.g. Stanković & Đukić, 2014, p.131). Therefore, it is of tremendous importance to provide relevant and credible information that enable prospective students to make the appropriate decision. Lack of adequate information that reflect actual characteristics of higher education institution and programme, leads to higher risk of wrong choice which is especially problematic for international students (Mortimer, 1997). Namely, because of higher education specifics, in most cases prospective students cannot easily “fix” the wrong choice by simply choosing another institution or programme, as they can often do in commercial sector by exchanging unsatisfactory product or service or simply buying a new one. In higher education sector, costs of transferring to another programme or institution are very high and, in addition to monetary expenses include time – delay, postponing, waiting (e.g. for the start of next academic year) and psychological effort related to additional engagement in new round of gathering and analyzing information, decision making related to new option and preparing for enrolment to other programme/institution.

Keeping in mind all the delicate issues related to this area, numerous studies have been realised with aim to define guidelines for appropriate marketing communications strategies and activities for higher education institutions (e.g. Mortimer, 1997; Gatfield et al., 1999; Hesketh & Knight, 1999). The common conclusion is that marketing communications of higher education institutions need to be based on strategic approach and results of systematic marketing research aimed at discovering informational needs and preferences of prospective students. The final aim is to provide students with sufficient and relevant information about characteristics of institution, necessary for decision making (see e.g. Mortimer, 1997; Bakewell & Gibson-Sweet, 1998; Sander et al., 2000;

Ivy, 2001; Oplatka, 2002; Maringe, 2005). Information need to be accurate, as inappropriate experiences of prospective students related to insufficient and deceptive information provided, can have very negative influence on image and reputation of higher education institution (Stanković & Popović, 2014, p.526).

Starting from these considerations, the basis of empirical research presented below is defined. The principal research question is formulated as follows:

- Which types and means of marketing communications are used in practice of higher education institutions in Serbia?

Additional research questions pertain to specific types and means of communications implemented in higher education institutions in Serbia:

1. To what extent are these types and means integrated?
2. Are there any types and means of marketing communications which are theoretically conceptualized but not used (sufficiently) in the practice of higher education institutions in Serbia?

RESEARCH OF THE MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

Research Description

The subject, objectives and scope of the research. The subject of this research includes types and means of marketing communications used by higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia, directed to potential students and the general public.

The principal objective of the research is to determine the types and means of marketing communications used by higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia.

The additional research objectives are the following:

1. Identifying the level of integration of the used types and means of marketing communications;
2. Highlighting the types and means of marketing communications that are theoretically conceptualized, but are not (sufficiently) used in the practice of higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia.

The scope of the research includes *all accredited³ higher education institutions⁴ in the Republic of Serbia*, including:

- 1) *faculties* – in the cases when they have status of legal entities, and
- 2) *integrated universities*, in the cases when their constituent faculties do not have the status of independent legal entities.

The preliminary list of accredited higher education institutions is defined on the basis of:

1. *List of accredited faculties and universities* set by the *Commission for Accreditation and Quality Assurance of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia* (Odbor za akreditaciju naučno-istraživačkih organizacija, 2014), and
2. Official information presented on the *websites* of accredited Serbian universities about the faculties within those universities.

The preliminary list of accredited higher education institutions was then redefined in accordance with the most recent *Guide through Accredited Study Programs in the Institutions of Higher Education in Serbia* (Komisija za akreditaciju i proveru kvaliteta, 2015). The final number of accredited higher education institutions with the status of legal entities is **131**, of which 87 institutions are founded by the Republic of Serbia (so-called “state(-founded)” or “public” universities and faculties) and 54 are not founded by the Republic, but private subjects (so-called “private” universities and faculties)⁵. These 131 institutions constitute research population.

³ Higher education institutions where teaching is carried out within accredited study programmes (at least one programme is accredited).

⁴ The research is done on the level of institutions (either faculties or integrated universities) and not individual departments or study programs, as marketing communications strategies and means (e.g. brochures, presentations on social networks, videos, presentations in secondary schools, education fairs, and the like) are in vast majority of cases (126 out of 131) designed and implemented for the level of entire institution (see: Popović, Stanković & Đukić, 2015).

⁵ Out of the institutions founded by the Republic, the analysis was done on the level of *faculties* in 86 cases (as all the faculties from state-founded Universities of Belgrade, Niš, Kragujevac, Novi Sad and Priština are accredited and have status of legal entities) and on the level of the *university* in only 1 case, as State University of Novi Pazar is the only integrated state-founded university (it does not consist of faculties as separate legal entities, but departments which are completely dependent –integrated).

Sources and methods of data collection. In order to identify the types and means of marketing communications used by higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia and level of their integration, the author analyzed the content of websites for several reasons.

Firstly, websites are only obligatory means of marketing communications for higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia. These institutions are legally obliged to communicate with interested groups through their websites⁶. All institutions of designated population do have websites and update their content fairly regularly⁷.

Secondly, the direct analysis of other types and means of marketing communications (instead of the websites) would cause significant limitations. “The vast majority of higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia are not promoted in the mass media, and even when they are, they are advertised on local television and radio stations and in local printed media, which makes it difficult for researchers to analyze their messages. The same applies to the potential analysis of other media with limited range (e.g. billboards). Dissemination of printed promotional materials (information leaflets, booklets, brochures, etc.) is generally performed at special (local or regional – author’s note) events (“Open Doors Days”, education fairs, presentations of higher education institutions to secondary school students, etc.).” (Popović, Stanković & Đukić, 2015, pp. 650-651)

Additionally, assumption is that if other types and means of marketing communications are used by higher education institutions, they should be presented on their web sites. Namely, most of the promotional means “exist in digital form on the websites of higher education institutions, which is an additional argument for (...), decision to analyze the content of Internet presentations.” (ibid, p. 651).

Out of the institutions founded by private subjects, the following cases are excluded from the population: the higher education institutions that belong to the accredited “private” universities but are not accredited themselves, or are in the process of accreditation, or do not have the status of a legal entity.

⁶ See, e.g. the *Rules of standards for self-evaluation and quality assessment of higher education institutions* – Standard 14 – Annex 1 (Национални савет за високо образовање, 2006).

⁷ Out of all analysed institutions, 108 have their own websites, while 23 are presented on separate pages within the websites of the universities to which they belong (three faculties of the Megatrend University, two faculties of the Alfa University, all three faculties of the Metropolitan University, six faculties of the Singidunum University, and nine faculties of the Educons University).

Therefore, the analysis is directed towards types and means which are embedded or at least mentioned on the websites, which is then treated as indication of integration of marketing communications. This approach can be considered for a certain limitation of the research – institutions could be using other means and types of marketing communications, but not mentioning them on their websites. Still, that would also mean that marketing communications are not appropriately integrated, and that issue is in the focus of this research.

The information about used types and means were searched for on several locations on the websites:

1. *Home/main page* – the assumption was that information about some communication types and means would be indicated on this page, e.g. *Internet marketing communications* – links to institution's profile on social networks (facebook, Twitter, Youtube, LinkedIn, etc.) and the like,
2. Web pages that are related to the *call for enrolment* in the first year of study at a specific faculty/university – the assumption was that some communication types and means would be indicated on these pages, e.g. electronic version of promotional leaflet, booklet, promotional video and similar means of *advertising* or information about special benefits for prospective students – which would be a pendant for *sales promotion* as used in business sector;
3. Web pages with *news* related to the institution's activities – the assumption was that some communication types would be indicated on these pages, e.g. information about organizing (e.g. Open doors day) or taking part in *special events* (e.g. Education fairs); or about presentations in targeted high schools – which would be treated as pendant to *personal selling* as a type of marketing communications;
4. Web pages with *media coverage* or press releases/ clipping about the institution (e.g. "Our institution in media", or "Media about us", etc.) – these pages provide direct indications about *publicity* as a type of marketing communications;
5. Web pages with *contact* information or information on *organizational structure* – these pages were analysed in order to get direct information about existence of person/team/office or service directly involved in *public relations* as a type of marketing communications.

Research period. Data collection for research purposes began in early January 2015 and lasted until

mid-May 2015. The desk research was realized in this period assuming that the data about the call for admission to the first year of studies (for the academic year 2015/16) would be placed on the websites of higher education institutions during that time, as the enrolment begins in June in most institutions. This created the necessary basis for the research of types and means of marketing communications, as they should be in their full use in this period when the communication directed to prospective students is the most intensive.

Analysis of Research Results

The data obtained through empirical desk research should provide the basis for answering the principal research question: *Which types and means of marketing communications are used in practice of higher education institutions in Serbia?* Since the main objective of the research is descriptive, research results are presented by use of methods of descriptive statistics. Since the research relates to the entire population of accredited higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia (and not the chosen sample), there is no need to apply inferential statistics and statistical tests in this paper.

Marketing communications on websites of higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia. In the period the research was conducted, the vast majority of accredited higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia (121 institutions or 92%) displayed explicitly on their websites information related to call for enrolment of prospective students, which created an appropriate discourse for analysis of marketing communications messages. Nearly half of the institutions (61 of them or 47%) implicitly displayed promotional appeals directed towards prospective students and general public, stating competitive advantages that make them distinct and different from competing institutions (more in: Popović et al., 2015).

After a detailed preliminary analysis of the content of websites of all the analyzed higher education institutions, it was concluded that all the theoretically conceptualized types of marketing communications are used in practice of these institutions. The marketing communication types were classified into eight categories and it was found that the most frequently used types were Internet marketing communications, while the rarest were direct types of marketing communications – direct marketing and personal selling. A more detailed review is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Types of marketing communications used by higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia (descending frequency)

Marketing communications type	No. of HEIs using it	% of total population
Internet marketing		
– web sites	131	100%
– other means	104	79%
Advertising	86	66%
Special events		
– participation	39	30%
– organization	33	25%
Sales promotion	33	25%
Public Relations	17	13%
Publicity	10	8%
Personal selling	2	1,5%
Direct marketing	2	1,5%

The details related to detected types of marketing communications are discussed in the further text.

Internet marketing communications of higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia. Internet marketing communications were analyzed separately, even though they can be considered for a type of advertising, if Internet is just perceived as means of advertising. However, in this study, Internet marketing is perceived as a separate type that includes marketing communications via various means of communications, as on-line social networks, blogs, forums etc. (see, e.g. Stanković & Đukić, 2014). Being obligatory, web site is used as a means of Internet marketing communications by all institutions from the investigated population. Distribution of other means of Internet communications is presented in the table 2.

TABLE 2. Means of Internet marketing communications used by higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia (descending frequency)

Marketing communications type	No. of HEIs using it	% of total population
facebook	79	60 %
YouTube	48	37%
twitter	41	31 %
Google+	14	11%
blogs	7	5,5%
forums	5	4%

Other means of Internet marketing communications, used by HEIs in Serbia (with frequency less

than 5) were: flickr, SoundCloud, Vimeo, LinkedIn, Instagram.

These findings should be understood only as preliminary indications, as the analysis pertains to forms and means of Internet marketing communications *directly and implicitly* presented on the institutions' websites. However, additional analysis revealed that 14 additional institutions have profiles on facebook, 1 on YouTube and 1 on twitter. But, these profiles were not mentioned nor indicated (by logos, pictograms or links) on institutions' websites which shows poor level of integration of marketing communications.

Another additional analysis was performed in order to check if there is a difference regarding use of Internet marketing communications by HEIs of different types⁸. The detailed review is presented in the table 3.

TABLE 3. Use of Internet marketing communications by different types of HEIs

	Type of HEI according to						
	Founder		Field of studies				
	State-founded	Private	1. HS	2. NM	3. TT	4. M	5. A*
No.	74	30	52	11	23	9	9
%	85%	55,5%	87%	92%	68%	82%	75%

* HS –humanities and social sciences, NM – sciences (natural and mathematics), TT – technical and technological, M- medicine, A – arts

Additionally, it was noted that eight “private” faculties from the field of humanities presented information about use of means of **mobile marketing** – 3 mobile applications (registered on google apps) developed for updating students about news related to their study programmes.

Advertising as a type of marketing communications is, according to the data presented on websites, used by 86 (66%) higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia. Means of advertising used by these HEIs, or more precisely – frequency of use of these means is shown in the table 4.

⁸ Higher education institutions were classified according to two criteria: 1. criterion related to institution's founder, 2. criterion related to field of studies (see: Zakon o visokom obrazovanju, 2013).

TABLE 4. Means of advertising used by higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia (descending frequency)

Means of advertising	No. of HEIs using it	% of total population
Promotional video	44	34 %
Brochures	23	18 %
Leaflets	3	2 %

These findings should also be cautiously interpreted as they are related only to means presented on the websites. Only videos with content which can be considered for promotional were taken into account (e.g. videos with stories of successful alumni or students, stories about institution or courses, virtual tours through institution, etc. with clear message inviting new prospective students) and only electronic version of traditional print promotional materials as brochures (with information for prospective students) or leaflets (usually for presentation of individual study programme). Only two cases of advertising via mass media were uploaded on the website – one promotional video broadcasted on local television and one article advertising course for preparing prospective students for entrance examination. However, additional analysis revealed 5 more cases of promotional videos on YouTube, which were not presented on institutions' websites, dozen cases of advertising on television, in newspapers and magazines and via billboards. The fact that these were not presented on the institutions' websites, shows again poor level of integration of marketing communications.

Results of additional analysis related to the use of advertising by HEIs of different types are shown in the table 5.

TABLE 5. Use of advertising by different types of HEIs

	Type of HEI according to						
	Founder		Field of studies				
	State-founded	Private	1. HS	2. NM	3. TT	4. M	5. A*
No.	50	37	58	7	12	4	6
%	68%	68%	97%	66%	35%	36%	50%

Special events as types of marketing communications of higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia were analysed on two levels – events organized by the institution (used by 33 institutions or 25%) and events in which institution takes part (used by 39

institutions or 30%). The typical example of the first type of events, organized by institutions, is so-called "Open Doors Day" which is usually organized once in the semester that precedes the Call for enrolment for the new prospective students. In four cases, institutions organize Open Doors Day once a week in the longer period before enrolment (in two cases in the period from November-June and from March-June and in two cases once a week throughout a whole year). Open Doors Day represents a promotional activity and an event when prospective students (sometimes their parents – explicitly mentioned in 4 cases; or their teachers – explicitly mentioned in 2 cases) can visit the institution, see how it looks like and operates and get information about study programmes etc.

The typical example of the second type of events, which higher education institutions take part in, are so-called "education fairs". Prospective students and other interested parties are invited by organizers to visit these events where various higher education institutions are presented and where all the interested visitors can get information and promotional materials and see presentations of those institutions.

The author analysed which of these events are mentioned and presented on the web sites of the institutions – whether the organization or involvement in special events is announced or reported about on the websites. The results of this analysis related to HEIs of different types are shown in the table 6.

There is a possibility that more HEIs organize or take part in more special events then number of these events presented on the websites. Lack of announcements and news about these events on websites is very problematic, as timely upload of news is also an invitation for all the potential visitors.

Sales promotion represents a very specific *type of marketing communications* in the context of *higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia*. Namely, in the context of profit, business organizations, sales promotions rely on specific means (e.g. free samples, presents etc.) or activities (special offer/sale, degustation, presentation, and lottery) aimed at increasing sales. As higher education institutions are not involved in *sales* as much as business organizations⁹, it was expected that this type of marketing communications would be relatively rare. And indeed, only 25% of the higher education institutions

⁹ Pendant to „sales“ exists on private HEIs which charge studies from students (except from some who receive scholarships or study „for free“ as the best students in the generation) and partly in case of students who pay tuition fees on state-founded HEIs.

TABLE 6. Special events as means on marketing communications of different types of HEIs

		Type of HEI according to						
		Founder		Field of studies				
		State-founded	Private	1. HS	2. NM	3. TT	4. M	5. A*
Events organized by HEI	No.	21	12	22	3	7	1	0
	%	24%	22%	36%	25%	21%	9%	/
Events in which HEI takes place	No.	24	15	20	3	12	3	1
	%	28%	28%	33%	25%	35%	25%	8%

(33 of 131) use some type of sales promotions. And of course, 85% of the institutions that use it, are private HEIs, as the vast majority of their students are paying tuition fees and those fees are the main sources of financing these institutions. Public HEIs in Serbia are supported by the Republic, so significant number of students on these institutions does not pay for studies and are financed by the state. Public institutions are less dependent on “sales” so, logically, sales promotion is rarely used by them. Typical examples of sales promotion in this context include:

- benefits related to *tuition fees* (e.g. “the lowest fees in the country”, “prices unchanged for years”, “20% off for the *early bird* applications for enrolment”, “(1st year of) studies free of charge/scholarships for the best candidates”, possibilities for paying in instalments, financial support for students with fewer opportunities, etc.);
- special benefits (free of charge: course/consultations for preparation of entrance examination, (on-line) application for entrance examination; “presents” – promotional brochures and other materials, textbooks and books, lectures recorded on CDs or USB flash memories; discount prices for professional books, courses, licences, public transport, etc.)

Use of this means of communication on public and private HEIs and HEIs from different fields of studies is presented in the table 7.

TABLE 7. Use of sales promotion by different types of HEIs

		Type of HEI according to						
		Founder		Field of studies				
		State-founded	Private	1. HS	2. NM	3. TT	4. M	5. A*
No.		5	28	22	2	6	1	2
%		6%	52%	37%	17%	18%	9%	17%

Public relations (PR) and publicity turned up to be **types of marketing communications rarely used by higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia**. Only 17 HEIs (13% of population) use PR, and even less – 10 of them (8%) use publicity. The approach used in analysing public relations as a type of marketing communications of HEIs is related to organization of PR activities. Namely, the only cases which were taken into account are those in which on the websites of HEIs it was explicitly mentioned that public relations are done by a person (9 or 53% of cases), special sector/service/office (7 or 41%) or a team (1 or 6%) designated for related activities. Also, the cases considered for the use of publicity were only those where on the websites, institutions had uploaded media reports (independent journalists’ reports on institution, organized events, enrolment etc.; interviews with professors on TV or in newspapers etc.). Therefore, the data presented in table 8 should be cautiously interpreted, and understood only in mentioned terms. Namely, the presented data only undoubtedly support the fact that marketing communications of HEIs are not well integrated. Highly possibly higher education institutions in Serbia use public relations as means of marketing communications more, but:

- those activities are integrated, by official classification, in some other work places/services/offices which names do not include indicators as “PR”, “marketing”, “communications”, or,
- people/services working in PR are just not presented on websites¹⁰.

Also, HEIs might have publicity, but media reports might not be monitored, recorded or uploaded to websites.

¹⁰E.g. in four cases, PR is done within *Office for marketing and PR*. The most developed case is one with a director and 6 employees.

TABLE 8. Use of PR and publicity by different types of HEIS

		Type of HEI according to						
		Founder		Field of studies				
		State-founded	Private	1. HS	2. NM	3. TT	4. M	5. A*
PR	No.	11	6	7	2	5	0	3
	%	13%	11%	12%	17%	15%	/	25%
Publicity	No.	9	3	9	1	1	0	1
	%	10%	5,5%	15%	8,5%	3%	/	8%

Direct types of marketing communications – pendants to Personal selling and direct marketing in business sector – are the rarest in the practice of **higher education institutions in the Republic of Serbia**. Both are found in only 2 explicit cases. Discovered pendants to personal selling are:

- presentations of HEIs in targeted secondary schools (from which the large inflow of prospective students is expected) – presented on the website of only one institution from the population;
- workshop for secondary school pupils – prospective students (“Be our student for a day”) – presented on the website of one institution from the population.

Discovered pendants to direct marketing activities are related to possibilities for interactive communication and exchange on two websites:

- in one case, prospective and actual students can insert contact details and receive regular updates about their study programme,
- in the second case, prospective students can insert contact details and order free brochure (about institution and study programmes) which is delivered to their home address.

Additional analysis revealed some interesting data regarding possibilities for interactive communication on websites and related responsiveness. Namely, the research showed that only 22 institutions or 17% of the population, offer *contact forms*¹¹ for direct interactive communication with students and other interested parties. Other institutions use more “traditional” way of communication – on the webpage usually entitled

Contact visitors can find telephone and email contact information for relevant offices or persons. Related to this, one more analysis was done – checking responsiveness of HEIs. “Neutral”¹² query was sent to all 131 institutions – where possible, via contact form, otherwise to email contacts. Only 34 replies were gained, so 26% of the institutions can be characterized as responsive. Nearly half of those institutions (47%) replied in period less than one working day, but, on the other hand, nearly one third (29%) replied after more than a month!¹³

In the end, it is interesting to point out that **word of mouth** as a form of communications was mentioned only in one case, of a website of one private institution from the field of humanities: “n% of students enrolled to our institution based on recommendation”.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Even though the research presented in this paper has certain mentioned limitations (the most important being that only data analysed are those presented on websites as research sources), it stills provides some important and relevant implications for practitioners and researchers from the field of higher education marketing. Indications or concluding remarks, and directions for further research, are presented as answers to research questions that refer to means and types of marketing communications used by HEIs in Serbia.

The most frequently used type is Internet marketing communications. The assumption is that the main reason for this is the cost effectiveness of this type of communications and the fact that actual and prospec-

¹¹Text box on the web site in which interested individuals insert message/query and directly send to person responsible for answering or redirecting queries. Contact form include more or less additional smaller boxes where web site visitors insert contact details, so they can receive answers to email account inbox.

¹²“Dear Madam/Sir, I would like to ask you if students of other faculties can borrow the books from your institution. Thanks in advance. Yours sincerely...”

¹³Period needed for response from one institution was 35 days, which was the absolute extreme.

tive students prefer Internet as source of information. But, these assumptions need to be tested through further research. The research results showed that most frequently used means of Internet communications are web sites (which are obligatory), facebook, YouTube and twitter. They are more used on state-founded then on private HEIs, most on HEIs from the field of humanities and surprisingly – the least on technical-technological HEIs. Still, issues related to content and regular updates of web sites and other means of Internet marketing communications need to be further investigated.

Advertising is the next most frequently used type of marketing communications, used by two thirds of HEIs in Serbia – equally by public and private institutions. Almost all HEIs from the fields of humanities use advertising, which is much more than other HEIs – those from the fields of technology and medicine use it the least. Most frequently used means of advertising are videos and brochures about institutions, while virtual tours through HEIs are only relatively innovative means.

One third of HEIs in Serbia take part in special events, and one forth of them organize those events. Typical example of events organized by HEIs is Open Doors Day and organized by others – Education Fair. Organization of special events is more typical for state-founded then private HEIs and those from the field of humanities then other fields. There is no difference between public and private HEIs when it comes to participation in special events, while institutions from humanities and technology participate more than other HEIs. The only relative innovation noted here is Open Doors Day organized more frequently (once a week in the longer period, not only period that directly precedes the enrolment) or open for not only prospective students but also their parents and teachers. Recommendation for the HEIs managers is to make sure that they regularly update websites with information about special events, so that potential visitors can learn about them and feel invited.

Sales promotions are used by only one forth of HEIs, much more on private than public institutions,

as their survival depends on sales. All means deployed are very alike, only innovations are “discounts” for early bird applications and presents as “recorded lectures”. It is important to note one problem here - some institutions present benefits that all students in Serbia have because of their status, as exclusive benefits that only students from those institutions have, which is deceptive.

According to the information on HEIs' websites, PR is present on nearly one tenth of them, but only cases when contact of PR persons/services was explicitly mentioned were taken into account. Suggestion for HEIs management is, therefore, to clearly present on website who is a person/service working in PR – in organizational scheme and in the part with contact information on websites. The same applies to publicity – research results show that less than one tenth of institutions have publicity, so managers obviously need to monitor these media reports better, to record and upload them regularly.

Direct marketing communications activities are the rarest, which is problematic having in mind the importance of relationship marketing on HEIs. The only presented information about personal selling refers to presentations in targeted high schools which is done by almost all HEIs, but presented on the website of only one. Potential innovative activity in this field is one mentioned workshop for pupils with simulation of student experience for a day. Research of direct marketing as a type of communications showed that HEIs need to strengthen possibilities for interactive communication with students and others and to significantly increase responsiveness.

Final conclusion is that, although HEIs use numerous types and means of marketing communications, innovative and creative activities are scarce. Integration of used means and types is necessary, so unique, consistent message can be sent to students and public and avoid misunderstandings and confusion. Integration of other means and types with Internet is crucial as students prefer it as a source of relevant information.

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Apstrakt:

Marketing komuniciranje visokoškolskih ustanova u Republici Srbiji

Ana Popović

U cilju suočavanja sa povećanom konkurencijom i ostalim izazovima na tržištu, visokoškolske ustanove (VŠU) su počele da primenjuju nove poslovne pristupe, što je dovelo do razvoja menadžmenta i marketinga visokoškolskog obrazovanja. Efikasno marketing komuniciranje je neophodno za dostizanje ciljeva vezanih za opstanak i razvoj na tržištu, pa teme iz ove oblasti imaju značajno mesto u marketingu visokoškolskog obrazovanja još od uspostavljanja te discipline. Različite strategije, aktivnosti, oblici i sredstva marketing komuniciranja definisani su u teoriji. Savremene tendencije podrazumevaju njihovo integrisanje u cilju ostvarivanja komunikacionih i strategijskih ciljeva organizacije.

Nakon pregleda specifičnosti marketing komuniciranja u pomenutom kontekstu, opisano je realizovano empirijsko istraživanje koje se odnosi na VŠU u Republici Srbiji. Polazeći od činjenica da se tržište visokoškolskog obrazovanja u Srbiji приметно proširilo relativno nedavno i da se konkurencija značajno povećava od 2000. godine, u glavnoj hipotezi je izneta pretpostavka da VŠU u Srbiji koriste brojne aktivnosti marketing komuniciranja. Glavno istraživačko pitanje je: Koji oblici i koja sredstva marketing komuniciranja se koriste i do koje mere su integrisani? Istraživanje je zasnovano na veb sajtovima VŠU kao glavnom izvoru informacija, jer su oni zakonski obavezujuće sredstvo komuniciranja za VŠU u Srbiji. Au-

tor traga za ostalim oblicima i sredstvima komuniciranja koji su integrirani, ili bar pomenuti na veb sajtovima, i tretira to kao indikacije integrisanog marketing komuniciranja. Glavni nalazi istraživanja potvrđuju pretpostavku o korišćenju raznih sredstava i oblika marketing komuniciranja, ali otkrivaju i probleme u njihovoj integraciji i ukazuju na to da većina ustanova koristi slične aktivnosti,

kao i da su inovativni i originalni oblici i sredstva veoma retki.

Ključne reči: visokoškolske ustanove, marketing komuniciranje, konkurencija, konkurenska prednost, integrirano marketing komuniciranje, marketing visokoškolskog obrazovanja

Kontakt:

M.Sc. Ana Popović, asistent
ana.popovic@eknfak.ni.ac.rs
Ekonomski fakultet Univerziteta u Nišu
Trg K.A. Ujedinitelja 11, Niš

The Origin and Historical Development of Branding and Advertising in the Old Civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe

Sladana Starčević

Abstract: The development of branding and advertising has always been mutually conditioned. The goal of this research is to determine the origin and show historic development of branding and advertising in the ancient civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe. The historical method of research was used. New evidence on various means of branding, advertising and other promotional activities application in the ancient history is presented. What was found is that social development imposed a need for marking of goods and promotional activities. It was done in a similar manner in all ancient civilizations, regardless of different time span. There were two types of branding and advertising: commercial and personal. The roles of branding and advertising were versatile and similar to their contemporary roles.

Keywords: brand, advertising, branding history, advertising history, old civilizations

JEL classification: M31, M37

1. THE INTRODUCTION

It is often stated that branding and advertising are as old as human society. Furthermore, it is believed that branding comes from the prehistoric age (Almquist & Roberts, 2000, p.10). Many authors contributed significantly to the research of branding and advertising history (Bastos & Levy, 2012; Moore & Reid, 2008; O'Barr, 2005). There was no use of words such as "brand", "advertising", "promotion" and "public relations" in the ancient times. However, these activities existed in various forms in the activities of ancient civilizations.

The very word "brand" stems from Middle Ages Nordic word "brander", meaning "burn down" (i.e. make a hot iron stamp on animals or objects), in order to distinguish the ownership (Leibtag, 2014, p. 9). The Vikings brought the word to England, but it was introduced in a dictionary no earlier than 1552 (Nordin et al., 2010, p. 179). The word "advertising" comes from ancient Latin word "advertere", meaning "turning to something", with the aim of provoking somebody's attention (Jenks, 1995, p. 27). In everyday speech, the word "advertising" came into use during the mid-seventeenth century (Jenks, 1995, p. 28). However, advertising exists since the occurrence of a need to influence the thinking of people, especially to provide support to the rulers or purchase goods (Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012, p. 50). The term "propaganda" will be occasionally used in this paper, as well, because it has a slightly different (often a negative) meaning, referring mainly to persuading people into certain "political or religious ideas" (Business Dictionary).

Branding and advertising in contemporary conditions are mutually connected and stimulating. It is therefore important to simultaneously observe the development of branding and advertising throughout history. Even though a significant number of works have been written on the topic of the history of branding and advertising, little has been written about the practice in the ancient time. The aim of this study is to present new evidence on the practice of branding and advertising in the ancient civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe, as well as their mutual influence based on a large number of scientific and other available sources, in addition to existing views.

2. THE METHODOLOGY AND HYPOTHESES

The historical method of research was applied in this paper, as one of the most frequently used methods in humanities. Regarding the development of branding and advertising, an understanding of past events is very important because it provides an insight into the current market situation in this field. The principles of the historical method are very useful for evaluation and validation of secondary data, mainly used in this research. Also, the historical method of research is a very good method for uncovering and verifying data from the distant past as well as the recent past that is not available from conventional data sources (Golder, 2000).

All phases of the historical research method were conducted:

1) Selection of topic and collection of evidence

The challenge for this research was the selection of a topic which has not been widely covered in the marketing literature in general, due to the lack of documented historical sources. Modern practice shows that branding and advertising are interconnected, so it was important to explore whether these activities (i.e. their roots) were related to each other in the distant past and whether they were synergistic. The research focused on large ancient civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe, which have had a major impact on social development.

Literature that was used to analyze the roots of branding and advertising in ancient times is very specific, due to the lack of scientific marketing sources. As the basis of this research, we used the published scientific sources (books and articles from scientific journals). The largest number of sources is in the field of history and they much more analytically describe the activities of ancient civilizations. It should be noted that marketing resources on branding and advertising used in this study were mostly partial, i.e. do not include real chronological overview of the facts and events in ancient civilizations. Likewise, the authors mainly wrote separately about topics of advertising and branding in all time periods. As additional sources, we used electronic databases, online archival materials, tourism promotional material of particular countries now located on the territory of ancient civilizations and cultural artifacts from those countries.

2) Critical evaluation of the sources and evidence

The purpose of this phase is to evaluate authenticity of the sources used in research, to exclude all inauthentic sources and to evaluate specific contents of documents. Bearing in mind that there is little objective documented evidence from the ancient times, research has imposed the need to assess the relevance of sources. In the field of history, a number of authors have written about similar topics. Therefore, the historical scientific sources are numerous, and the data more reliable, because there are plenty of replicas of particular studies. The situation is not the same for the sources from the field of marketing relating to the origins of branding and advertising. The practices of branding and advertising in ancient civilizations are mostly covered in general terms. Often, the same facts are repeated from one to the other source of literature, without historical verification. At this stage, we have rejected certain number of marketing sources because we have concluded that they do not correspond to the historical chronology of events. Articles published on certain Internet sites have been used only in cases when they represented confirmed historical facts. Free interpretations of historical data by individual authors are clearly stated in the paper.

3) Analysis and interpretation of the evidence

The paper contains a detailed chronological analysis and interpretation of practice of branding and advertising within each subject area. We separately analyzed the great ancient civilizations that have settled three continents - Africa, Asia and Europe. Subtitles are named on the basis of specific territories inhabited by ancient civilizations (i.e. Egypt, Ephesus, Greece, China etc.). Prior to analysis of old civilizations, the article provides a brief overview of the prehistoric period on the basis of a very limited number of sources, which implies a certain degree of subjectivity.

In this stage, we used our conclusions to complete information that was not specifically provided. First of all, we tried to find similarities between certain activities of ancient civilizations and practice of branding and advertising. For example, a number of activities that have been conducted by Ramses II were not considered branding or advertising by historians. However, from the perspective of marketing, these activities can be interpreted quite differently. This phase also helped us to eliminate additional references that were contradictory to the real historical facts.

- 4) Presentation of the evidence and conclusions
This part of the research was developed based on the previous stage's analysis and interpretation of the evidence. In this paper, we have presented an original table that briefly summarizes the activities of branding and advertising in particular ancient civilizations. In the process of synthesis, generalizations and conclusions about the studied phenomenon were performed, and presented in narrative form. In addition to the chronology of events, causes and consequences were presented (conditionality of development of branding and advertising in ancient civilizations). Bearing in mind that the sources used in this paper are primarily qualitative, this way of presenting the results provides a deep understanding of the activities of ancient civilizations.

In accordance with the use of historical research method, the paper tested several hypotheses:

- 1) In the ancient civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe, several different forms of branding, advertising and other promotional activities were used, with similar roles in the contemporary era.
- 2) Social development has imposed a need for the use of certain forms of branding and advertising in ancient civilizations.
- 3) Between civilizations that were in touch there is a lot of similarity in the practice of branding and advertising.
- 4) The development of branding and advertising has always been mutually stimulating.

The main difference in the study of old and new forms of branding and advertising is that there were no documented records or those were not sufficiently clear during a long time. Therefore, conclusions about the practice in the ancient times can be drawn based on the limited documentary evidence, along with a significant degree of subjectivity.

3. THE PREHISTORIC ORIGINS OF BRANDING AND ADVERTISING

Prehistoric age is determined from the appearance of a man (2 600 000 BCE) and it lasted until the appearance of the first class society and written documents (4000-3000 BCE) (Renfrew, 2008, p. 13). There is very little evidence of the lifestyle of the ancient community. Drawings on the walls of caves in France and Spain from the Palaeolithic era indicate that the already-used symbols were being repeated in that very period (McKie, 2012). Although the meaning of the symbols and drawings of animals was not determined, scientists believe that people performed magical rituals in front of them (Bourbon, 2004, p. 23).

Other scientists link the origins of branding to the late Stone Age, when hunting tools were marked with symbols for the purpose of efficient hunting (Almqvist & Roberts, 2000, p. 10). Totemism, as one of the oldest types of religion, can be considered a precursor of branding. The origins of totemism are related to the first communities and Neolithic era (Magelahn, 2007). It was believed that every community had its own patron saint, who was represented by the symbol, i.e. totem. These were usually animals and plants, whereas totems represented something else - faith, religion and values. Some authors compare modern practice of branding with totemism. Brands that have reached a certain status for a group of people who buy these brands, separate them from other groups of people (Manning, 2012, p. 138; Massey, 2008, p. 54). People buy brands to express their own self-concept (Park & Lee, 2005, p. 39). Totemism can be linked with the concept of "brand as a religion" as the highest stage of the brand evolution. Consumers are then becoming so emotionally attached to the brand and brand guides their behaviour (de Cheratony, 2012, p. 53-55). A typical "spiritual brand" example is Harley Davidson. Religion spreads as its followers emotionally connect and believe that religion provides something that other religions do not (Faris, 2014).

Most authors associate roots of branding and advertising with early civilizations and literacy, i.e. ancient times (4000-3000 BCE), which lasted until the fall of the Western Roman Empire (476 CE). The legacy and the buildings from this period have a major impact on the branding of nations which are now located there, especially on the tourism.

4. THE ORIGINS OF BRANDING AND ADVERTISING IN THE ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS OF AFRICA – ANCIENT EGYPT

Sahara divided Africa so that the north and south part developed independently, therefore, different cultures occurred. The shores of North Africa experienced a boom in the first century CE, when they were the province of the Roman Empire (Lydon, 2005, p. 293; Bourbon, 2004, p. 92-93). In this paper, it will be

written about Egyptian civilization as it had the most impact.

The birth of Egyptian civilization was around 3300 BCE and it is one of the oldest civilizations in the world. The Egyptians established the first cities in Africa. They had a large military and cultural power in North Africa and the Mediterranean region (LaFontaine, 2002, p. 1-3).

There were many different forms of application of branding and advertising in Egypt. There is evidence that the Egyptians marked, i.e. branded cattle around 2700 BCE. The purpose was to indicate ownership, so that livestock could easily be found should any escape or be stolen (Khan & Mufti, 2007, p. 76). The animal branding practice later spread to other areas. It became particularly popular in America, but during a much later period (Rozin, 2002, p. 4-5).

Pyramids, as funeral objects and symbols of the Egyptian culture, have a number of interpretations. First of all, those were "marks in the desert" where body of deceased ruler was laid. It was believed that the ruler continued his life after death as a defender of order from disorder (Bourbon, 2004, p. 92). In ancient Egypt, there were other forms of marking identity and ownership, such as on ceramic vases, which were largely produced throughout the history of this civilization. Marks of whole teams who participated in the construction of some buildings were found (The Old Kingdom and the Middle Kingdom) or mark of the ruler who had the building built (the time of the New Kingdom) (Harring et al., 2011, p. 1; Khan & Mufti, 2007, p.76).

Although the self-promotion and personal branding started quite late being written about in the theory of marketing, the practice is as old as human society. Egyptian culture was one of the most influential cultures in the past, due to the fact that Egyptian rulers (pharaohs) heavily used personal promotion to glorify their achievements (especially military achievements), and everything they built (Roberts, 2006, p. 40). In this way, they indirectly created personal brand too, although this was not a planned activity. Although kingdom was inherited from father to son, there was a great role of mother and queen. Women used to manage kingdom for political purposes, but rather shortly, except for Queen Hatshepsut (Allen, 2000). The rulers in Egypt were equal to gods and they were expected to glorify own achievements (Roberts, 2006, p. 40).

Personal promotion of individual rulers appeared as a large integrated campaign. When they had a building built, the ruler would celebrate the con-

struction works from their start to the end. This was particularly evident during the New Kingdom (1550-1076 BCE) and under ruler Ramses II (XIX dynasty, 1295-1188 BCE), as one of the most famous pharaohs, along with Tutankhamun (XVIII dynasty, 1550-1295 BCE). Many reliefs and inscriptions, which can provide evidence to this self-promotion, can be seen at the Great Temple at Abu Simbel, south of Luxor. Ramses II declared himself a god there while still alive, and he had his fame intensified by symbols. Messages on the size and divinity of Ramses II are repeated even in a Small Temple dedicated to his wife (Bourbon, 2004, p.134). There were many statues of Ramses II in Luxor and the Sphinx in front of the Nubian temples which resembled him. Reliefs showed his participation in military campaigns, marriage ceremony with his wife Nefertari, and various scenes with the other gods (Willey, 2009, p. 5). All symbols were mutually connected and can be said to have sent a unified message. There are different theories about the relief of Abu Simbel, such as the Battle of Kadesh. Some scientists believe that this battle never took place, but merely represents a meaningful campaign of rulers (Willey, 2009, p. 7). Ramses promoted the role of other family members, especially the Queen Nefertari (Gohary, 2012). War propaganda campaigns against the enemies of Egypt from the period of the father of Ramses II (Seti I - son of Ramses I) are also well-known (Roberts, 2006, p.39; Bourbon, 2004, p. 140). To sum up, all the symbols, figures and reliefs were focused on creating the image of a ruler as a god, in order to achieve an impact on people.

The Egyptians invented papyrus, around 3000 BCE. Around 1100 BCE, the members of civilization of Western Asia have started to buy papyrus from Egypt (Hornblower, Spawforth & Eidinow, 2012, pp. 239-241). Papyrus has enabled mass communication because notes could be spread and transferred from hand to hand. The first ad on papyrus was originally made in ancient Egypt, around 3200 BCE. It was an ad for the escaped slaves search, offering a prize (Sandage & Fryburger, 1963, p.4).

There were other forms of advertising and promotional activities in Egypt. Just as in ancient Babylon, hawkers walked the streets yelling to promote the names of the goods arriving by ships (Danesi, 2008, p.5). Because of illiteracy, as in other ancient civilizations, pictorial signs representing goods that are sold inside were placed in shops. It was often a wooden table or a stone slab with a carved sign (Landa, 2006, p. 20). There were no brands at that period of time. Products were generic, sold out of wooden boxes, bar-

rels and bags. However, increasing competition between craftsmen and retailers, as well as the import of many products, encouraged the use of promotional activities for selling products.

5. THE ORIGINS OF BRANDING AND ADVERTISING IN THE ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS OF ASIA

There is documented evidence of the existence of certain branding and advertising activities in the ancient civilizations of Asia. However, there are significant differences between the civilizations of the Middle and Far East, because they developed independently, and in different time periods.

5.1. Ancient Babylon (Mesopotamia)

Babylon was ancient Mesopotamia civilization's center located on the present-day Iraq territory (Joshua, 2011). When the city of Ur dominated central and southern Mesopotamia (2122-2004 BCE), Babylon was an important administrative centre. During the reign of Hammurabi (1792-1750 BCE) it became a great spiritual capital of southern Mesopotamia. Whereas royal propaganda was not as common as later in Egypt, still certain forms of personal promotion can be identified. Archaeologists have never found any statue of King Hammurabi, but a stone slab with the famous Code of Hammurabi was discovered in Susa. King Hammurabi is shown receiving the laws of god Shamash, the God of Justice (Bourbon, 2004, p.192). Some historians believe that this was not a legal document, but a form of royal propaganda that was to enhance Hammurabi's impact long after his death (Andrews, 2013). Some early forms of branding originate from ancient Babylon. „Kudurru“ stone monuments (meaning fence or boundary) originate from the period 1600-1200 BCE. These symbolised the division of land (Bahn, 2000, p.78). Some historians believe that these monuments represented no sign of ownership, but symbols used for royal propaganda. They usually had a text and picture of the events in which the rulers took part (Slanski, 2000, p. 97). The first documented evidence of the existence of outdoor advertising came from Babylon (Hayko, 2010, p.79). Prints on clay plates of ornaments and footwear sellers were found. These were the first media of communication in the Middle East (Ezejideaku & Ugwu, 2010, p.1). Symbols were also carved in stone or carved on a wood. Danesi believes that these symbols (cap for wine shop, boot

for cobbler) were the first manufacturers' trademarks (Danesi, 2008, p.5).

As Mesopotamia did not have many natural resources, the Babylonians were trading with neighbouring countries (The British Museum, 2015). Babylon was the cradle of the hawkers who promoted goods arriving by ships (McDonough & Egolf, 2003, p. 755). Babylon was the cradle of the first forms of trade promotion also. As Babylon was dependent on trade with neighbouring countries, the kings were aware that they had to promote trade. They gave incentives to merchants and even compensation if they suffered theft. However, the promotion of trade was a means of personal promotion of rulers (Classical Art History, 2014). Today, the visible remains of the city of Babylon date back to the ruler Nabuchodonosor II (604-562 BCE), who declared the Babylon independence (Bourbon, 2004, p.194). Although he participated in numerous military campaigns, he is better known as the famous builder. He built double walls around Babylon so as to protect the people. The main entrance to the city was famous Ishtar Gate (Somervill, 2010, p.62). It is estimated that for the construction of public buildings in Babylon around 15 000 bricks were used, which were labelled (hand inscription, fingerprint or small stamps) (The British Museum, 2015). There is a longer inscription at the Ishtar gate which Nabuchodonosor II put so as to explain why and from which materials the gate had been built, in addition to promoting himself as builder (Lindsay, 2014, p.16-17).

5.2. Ur (Mesopotamia)

The city of Ur was founded around 4500-4000 BCE. It is located in the area of modern-day Iran. There has been a tremendous progress of crafts and trade with distant countries around 3000 BCE regarding the city-states of Mesopotamia, and Ur among them. This made Mesopotamia the world leader according to application of technology (Bourbon, 2004, p.197). Although Ur was best known for the famous king and the epic of Gilgamesh (which was written about 2150-1400 BCE), this civilization is remembered for having introduced many things. First discovered written scripts originate from Ur. It is estimated to have been made around 4100-3800 BCE (Eby, 2015). Although the letters written in Mesopotamia and Egypt are different, some similarities imply the influence of Mesopotamia. There is still disagreement whether the writing developed independently in Egypt (around 3200 BCE) and China (around 1200 BCE) (Daniels & Bright, 1996, p. 24-25, 191). On the basis of the system

and signs, it was concluded that the systems are completely different (Keightley, 1978, p. 413-415).

Ur, along with Babylon, was the cradle of royal propaganda later spread to the Middle East. Kings had a role of ensuring state's welfare. By royal propaganda, numerous reliefs and detailed inscriptions, they emphasized military achievements and construction projects. However, even then, everything was exaggerated (McIntosh, 2005, p. 183).

Around 3300-2900 BCE, in Ur cylinder seal was introduced, which made an imprint on the surface. Thus, the labelling has become easier, and the same mark could be repeated. Cylinder seals and cuneiform scripts were symbols of the culture of Mesopotamia (Aruz & Wallenfels, 2003, p. 39). They were used as a seal for administrative documents, jewellery or a talisman, but the primary roles were: the marking of ownership and emphasising the personal reputation of the owner (Joshua, 2011). Cylinder seals were later used in other civilizations.

Archaeologist David Wengrow claims that, even 5000 years ago in Mesopotamia, caps for bottles were made with marks - which can be considered the first form of branded products. Also, cylinder seals, which occurred in a later period, were personalized. They often had the role of the trademark, guaranteed quality and origin of the goods, during food and drink export in the surrounding countries. Those are some of the contemporary roles of branding (Hetch, 2008).

5.3. Persepolis

Persian Empire was founded by Cyrus II. Darius I expanded the empire. Persepolis was the ceremonial capital of Persia. It is located in Iran as we today know it and founded by Darius I, around 500 BCE. The construction was strictly planned, and the architecture combined influences of different cultures (Bourbon, 2004, p. 200-203). Buildings had several important roles, and those were also monuments of Darius I personal propaganda (Codella, 2007, p.74). Materials from all over the world and numerous ornaments were used, to create a feeling of grandeur. However, the city building up never completed, because it was destroyed in the great fire of 330 BCE, when the army of Alexander the Great set fire to the city (Bourbon, 2004, pp. 200-201).

Persian Empire consisted of twenty provinces. Representatives from the provinces came to Persepolis for the occasion of New Year (according to the Mazdaism) and brought gifts to the king. The reliefs in Persepolis glorified the king and kingdom display-

ing a large number of people and objects brought. The famous Gate of All Nations built by Xerxes II in honour of the god Ahura Mazda, had the inscription glorifying him and his father as the builders (Eduljee, 2015). Twenty three nations with different ethnic characteristics were shown there. Opinions are divided over whether the reliefs and prints were part of the royal propaganda or just representations of ceremonies (Retso, 2003, p. 238-239). However, there was apparently a strong need for personal promotion of the ruler. That's evidenced by the numerous reliefs of king in different situations (walking, accompanied by servants, in a fight with a lion or mythical animals, etc.). The kings were shown as much taller than other people in reliefs, in order to emphasize their power (Facts and Details, 2015).

Darius I first started to use another medium for personal propaganda – engraving of his own face on all coins (Classical Art History, 2015). There were also used cylinder seals to indicate the identity of the owner or person responsible for the goods or documents (Garrison & Root, 2003, pp. 199-201).

5.4. Nemrut Dagı

Commagene, located in today's Turkey, was an important strategic place in the Middle East. This place was under the Assyrian Empire, then under the Persian Empire. 162 years BCE they succeeded in fight for its independence. Antiochus I came to the throne 98 BCE, in order to strengthen the Greek influence and build a new religion that would be a combination of East and West – Greek, Roman and Persian culture (Bourbon, 2004, p. 157). He built an enormous tomb on top of the mountain Nemrut Dagı (the Mountain of stone gods) (Goell, 1957, p. 5). The tomb is called "hierotherion", which is the Greek name for the tomb dedicated to a cult (Bourbon, 2004, p. 157). This ruler also sought to express his importance to the people, as the unifier of religions and deity during his life. He used various means of propaganda and symbols. There are numerous inscriptions in ancient-Greek and Persian on the preserved remains of a tomb. In addition to the statues, there are numerous reliefs of Antiochus shaking hands with the gods. This ruler organized lavish celebrations so as to gain the people (Belmonte & Gonzalez-Garcia, 2010, p.473). These campaigns were quite expensive. However, Greece's influence never tamed nature of Middle Eastern locals. Antiochus' son never finished the tomb and rejected this religion (Bourbon, 2004, p. 156). However, the fact is that the Middle East, Egypt, Ancient Greece and Rome were

culturally connected, as proven by similar means of communication and branding (Harper, 1971, p. 1).

5.5. Ephesus

Ephesus was one of the most beautiful and richest Greek cities of Asia Minor. It was known for trade, numerous activities and developed cultural life. Built in the tenth century BCE, the city experienced a boom in the sixth century BCE. Various government and political influences took turns there (Starkweather, 2008).

The best-known sights of the city are: The Temple of Artemis, Celsus Library, and the Great Theatre (Bourbon, 2004, p. 164). Numerous records were found in the ruins of Ephesus. Some had the role of informational advertising. There was a high building across Celsus Library, probably a brothel. Archaeologists discovered a marble road graffiti depicting a foot moving towards the building, a woman's head and heart. It is believed that these were billboards dedicated to sailors, but there are many different interpretations of this advert (Ephesus Travel Guide, 2015).

5.6. Indus Valley

Indus or Harappan civilization is one of the oldest civilizations of ancient times. Indus civilization occurred around 3300 BCE, and reached its bloom 2600-2000 BCE (Shinde & Willis, 2014, p. 1). Settlements were mostly concentrated around the southern part of the Indus River. Civilization encompassed the north-eastern part of Pakistan and north-western India, as well (Phuoc, 2010, p.6). The Harappan civilization is known for the management of cities (Agnihotri, 2010, p. 62). It was the cradle of the first forms of public relations. The manner of organization allowed for effective communication between the authorities in cities and other members of society (Reddi, 2009, p. 454).

The Harappan civilization depended on trade. Arts and crafts were highly developed. Many pieces of pottery shaped on the wheel were excavated. One of the biggest legacies of civilization are steatite seals of different forms. Wealth individuals had seals made of copper or silver (Shinde & Willis, 2014, p. 2; Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2004). More than 1200 different seals were found, mainly with figures of local animals and prints of people in yoga pose (Moore & Reid, 2008, p. 427). These seals were most commonly used as trademarks in the stores (Reddi, 2009, p. 454).

5.7. Ancient China

The ancient Chinese civilization dates from Palaeolithic era (Rixiang et al., 2003, p. 341). It began and developed in the valley of the Yellow River, and later around other major rivers south and east of these areas. Several major dynasties took turns in China, spreading over different geographic areas.

The first documented evidence comes from the Shang Dynasty (1600-1046 BCE), which ruled after the Xia Dynasty (2070-1600 BCE). At that period of time a system of writing developed (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2015). Most of the records were found on oracle bones used for religious purposes, but also on the leaves of bamboo, stone, pottery, bronze and even turtle shell (Keightley, 1983, p. 134). Despite being an agricultural dynasty, it developed a large production of bronze weapons and vases (Cultural China, 2015). Most of the tombs of kings of this dynasty were robbed, but one of the richest ones was found almost intact - Tomb of Fu Hao, one of the wives of King Wu Ding. More than 2000 items and more than 200 ritual vases were found with her name inscribed. This was the only woman who participated in military activities on behalf of king, leading a war propaganda campaign. Even then, it was known what "power of influence" meant (The British Museum, 2015). In the era of Shang Dynasty in China first seals appeared. They were initially used mainly for verification of documents by the authorities and had a simple mark. Much later, during the Qin Dynasty (221-206 BCE), seals of rulers became separated from the seals of lower levels of administration. However, the use of the seal for the purpose of branding and signing of artworks is related to the later dynasties (Li, 2009, p. 167-169). Artists often used pseudonyms when they marked their work. Famous collectors put their stamp or signature on the artwork and thus raised the value. Some works of art had several different marks (Li, 2009, p. 171).

China made significant progress during the Zhou Dynasty (1046-256 BCE) – its cities grew, roads were built, a writing system developed and communication improved. There was a blooming of philosophy with numerous influential schools, as Confucianism and Daoism (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2015). Trade being developed and daily trade fairs were held. They also used hawkers as a medium of communication. They promoted goods sold on a daily basis in cities (Landa, 2006, p. 20). The goods were exhibited in the streets as precursors of today's supermarket displays. It is believed that these fairs represented the beginning of commercial advertising in China (Cheng &

Chan, 2009, p. 26). The famous book „The Art of War“, written by a Chinese warrior and philosopher Sun Tzu comes from the period of Zhou Dynasty (Wilson & Xue, 2006, p. 22).

Qin Dynasty (221-206 BCE) was the first imperial dynasty in China. Feudalistic system was then abolished, and the first centralized state created. Trade and agriculture significantly enhanced, writing system standardized, military and transport technology developed. The first emperor, Qin Shi Huang began construction of the Great Wall of China, as a defence against the Mongols (Boundless, 2015). However, the rulers of this dynasty sought to destroy all traces of previous dynasties, so they carried out activities such as burning books, etc. persecuted scholars. Dynasty is remembered for the famous Terracotta Army, which was found in a pit, 1,400 km from the mausoleum of Qin Shi Huang. The army had more than 6,000 statues of soldiers, more than 400 horses and war chariots. The soldiers were slightly larger than life-size people, so represented with the aim of emphasizing strength. Some soldiers and horses had marks or signatures of artisans. More than eighty five different names can be traced, and there are some other names next to them, which are assumed to have been assistant craftsmen. The faces of all the figures are different and they represent ethnicity, while the bodies are mostly uniform (Bourbon, 2004, p. 260-262).

There was a flourishing of the arts, politics and technology during the Han Dynasty (206-220 CE). The boundaries got wider and they created institutions that strengthened China. A large network of trade routes that are collectively called the “Silk Road” developed, connecting China and India with the Mediterranean and other European countries (Feddersen & Zucatto, 2013, p. 159).

During the Tang Dynasty (618-907 CE), the market was largely developed. Media advertising partially used in the previous dynasties has become common, such as large hanging banners and pictorial signs. In order to make goods noticeable, the lanterns were used as lights (Cheng & Chan, 2009, p. 26). During the Song Dynasty (960-1279 CE), “block printing” for printing the whole page was introduced, therefore making possible mass advertising (Landa, 2006, p. 20). Papyrus originates from Egypt, but the development of printing system in China enabled future mass communication.

5.8. Sanchi and Ajanta Caves

Sanchi is the best preserved complex of “stupas” in India, as the most important forms of Buddhist culture. The site was established during Ashoka, the Buddhist emperor from the third century BCE. Sanchi was important until the first century BCE, when there was a decline of Buddhism in favour of Hinduism. When Buddha was cremated his remains were divided among the main warrior tribes. Then he made the top ten stupas. The main stupa (Mahastupa) had a diameter of 36 meters and height of 19 m (Kamya, 2015; Bourbon, 2004, p.9). It had four entrances, (known as “torana”) and triple architrave. On them were reliefs with scenes of Buddha from the present and past life. Buddha did not appear anywhere in the human form, but in the form of symbols or animals (Kleiner, 2010, p. 16). On Sanchi buildings a multitude of inscriptions was found. They identified the signatures of buildings donors, as well as the most skilled craftsmen and ivory carvers (Phuoc, 2010, p. 155).

The site of Ajanta is located in Maharashtra in India and it is made out of thirty caves in a row. These were Buddhist shrines excavated at various levels in a stone amphitheatre. First, the caves digging took place between the second and the first century BCE and additional 400 years later. The caves are famous for their wall paintings - frescos, depicting the stories of Buddha's previous life (Bourbon, 2004, p. 231). Archaeologists have found a large number of inscriptions. Although some are not interpreted, it is assumed that those include personal names (Dhavalikar, 1968, p. 148). The Fourth cave comes from the sixth century CE, but was never completed. There are also other numerous frescos, and at the foot of a Buddha image there is an inscription that depicts religious gift from a person named Mathura (Deshpande, 1973, p. 9).

6. THE ORIGINS OF BRANDING AND ADVERTISING IN THE ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS OF EUROPE

Being the cradle of Western civilization, Europe has a history thousands of years old. Many excavations are a proof of the great achievements and influence of ancient civilizations from this region.

6.1. Crete

Cretan or Minoan civilization was one of the first advanced civilizations on the European soil (Hughey et al., 2013). Crete was the dominant merchant and naval

force. It had strong merchant links with Egypt and the Middle and Far East. At the beginning of the Bronze Age (2000-1750 BCE) first cities with palaces appeared. Knossos was the most fascinating architectural complex. The island was rich in resources and there were no signs of war. Production was developed, and trade based on the food exchange and craftsmen's products (pottery, gold, ivory, metals). Houses and tombs often had ornaments made of imported luxury materials. There was also a way of marking the product or property. Small disc-shaped seals with a simple sign, made of wood, bone or stone, were used for marking the goods or property (Cavaliere, 2007, p. 411). Around 1700 BCE, there was a series of earthquakes that completely flattened Crete (Bourbon, 2004, p.33).

6.2. Ancient Greece

Ancient Greece had a glorious past. Pottery is often used for reconstruction of the past (White et al., 1995, p. 5). In ancient Greece and Rome, pottery was produced to a large extent, even industrial. It was sold around the Mediterranean and in distant countries. After the great industrial revolution in Athens (around the second half of the sixth century BCE), pottery marking became common, including the signature of the person who made the vase and painted it (Wilson & Xue, 2006, p. 530). The first well-known author in Greece who painted the vase was Sophilos. A vase with the inscription "Sophilos painted me" was found (Khan Academy, 2015). Many pieces of pottery had been produced before Sophilos, but the artists had not signed their art. The first Greek artist whose signature was known (prior to Sophilos), and did not live in Greece, was Aristonothos. He lived in the first half of the seventh century BCE in Etruscan Caere. His famous vase "Aristonothos crater", found in Cerveteri, reflects the mutual influence of Greece and Etruria (Lomas, 2004, p. 191). A motif from Homer's *Odyssey* is shown on the vase and the signature of the artist lies between the painted figures. It is believed that the same person both made and painted vase (Lyons & Papadopoulos, 2002, p. 161). In ancient Greece, trade in delicately painted pottery, in contrast to ordinary pottery, did not have such a share of the economy as it did in Rome (Morris, 1995, p. 99). Signing pottery was performed by a large number of competitive craftsmen. It became vital that the products should be different. Also, these products needed promotion. The most common used media were pictorial signs in stores and hawkers.

Some authors believe that propaganda in ancient Greece was planned for the first time (around 800 BCE). In the writings of Confucius it was spoken about the power of rhetoric (Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012, pp. 50-51). The pharaohs in ancient Egypt used some form of propaganda and public relations for the first time. In order to have an impact on the opinion of the broad masses, they used the arts and made huge buildings (O'Shaughnessy, 2012, p. 30). Taylor also believes that in Babylon and Egypt those were all sporadic attempts (Taylor, 2003, p. 24).

After 750 BCE, there were established city-states who competed for dominance. It was fertile ground for the development of advertising (Taylor, 2003, p. 26). Buildings and the volume of trade were the greatest symbols of development of cities. Alexander the Great (356-323 BCE) was one of the first persons who knew how to evaluate the psychology of the enemy (Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012, p. 51). He used large events as a medium for personal propaganda. In an attempt to unite Macedonia and Persia, he married the eldest daughter of the Persian king Darius, and enabled eighty officers to marry the women of Persia (Taylor, 2003, p. 33). Such propaganda has had a greater impact than politics (Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012, p. 53). Alexander the Great also realized that symbols can increase his influence. His image appeared on coins, pottery, buildings and works of art (Taylor, 2003, p. 33).

The Greeks were in love with sports. The Olympic Games started taking place in 776 BCE as integral part of religious life (Taylor, 1997, p. 24). Olympic Games can be considered one of the first event brands, which later developed into a global brand event (with interruptions from 393 BC to 1896 CE). The Athens Acropolis plays a major role in the branding of Greece as a tourist destination nowadays. There is an impressive collection of Greek inscriptions, describing public and private buildings, religious events and life in Greece (Bourbon, 2004, p.45).

6.3. Ancient Rome

Ancient Rome was the first metropolis in the history of human kind. It was founded in 753 BCE. It was the city of the best baths, libraries, theatre performances and shops, great healers and lawyers. The buildings we admire today were built during the Roman Empire period (Bourbon, 2004, p.72).

The town was like a large bazaar, full of shops called "taberna". Those shops had pictorial signs as a means of outdoor advertising. There was a license for doing business on walls of some shops (Holleran, 2012, p.

100-106). There were officially authorized travelling merchants, who were making their way through the crowd by shouting the names of products (Bourbon, 2004, p. 74). That was a paid advertising job. Retailers had to fight for customers due to tremendous competition. Word of mouth played a major role.

A number of public events were held in Rome. What was popular were gladiator fights, circus games and chariot racings. Members of all social classes used public baths (Bourbon, 2004, p. 76). Those were built in a large number of buildings for public events (Weiss, 2014, p. 2). The most famous buildings from this era are the Colosseum, Amphitheatre of Pompeii and The Circus Maximus. Public events were the mass media for political propaganda of rulers. Rich people struggled for sponsorship of these events (Galbi, 2009).

Some gladiators, actors and charioteers were like today's celebrities. Even then the power of their influence was recognized (Köhne & Ewingleben, 2000, p.4-5). Gladiators were so popular that they became an art inspiration, for making portraits and souvenirs (Futrell, 2006, p. 136). Rome's inhabitants were offered such a quality of life which could not be achieved until the end of the eighteenth century (Bourbon, 2004, p. 84).

There were other forms of mass media. There was a publication entitled "Acta Popidi" or "Acta Publica" during the rule of Caesar. It is a first discovered form of newspapers for information purposes (dates of birth and death, the availability of food, etc.), and it was controlled by the authorities (Ronnick, 2006, p. 39).

Some authors believe that social media is not a new phenomenon, but something that has long existed in a different form. The system of social media stems from ancient Roman age. Important information from public meetings was spread on papyrus, which was then copied, commented and shared. They used quotes as well and changed the written content like on contemporary social networks (Bullard, 2014, p. 182-185). To maximize impact, Caesar (100-44 BCE) also used the money as a medium of mass communication. The coin portrayed not only his character, but war victories and his other roles too (Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012, p. 53-54).

A lot of hand-made pottery and works of art come from ancient Rome. The mark of the artist, merchant or place of origin was put on them. The labels were trademarks (Anttiroiko, 2014, p. 48). The pottery was produced in large amounts and a lot of it was exported. Different marks were used on unfinished and finished pottery. Signature or mark identified the person who

made the pottery (usually in italics), the name of the factory or workshop (as a stamp) or the person who finalised it (as small stamps). Factory stamps were visible and had a promotional purpose (Johns, 1963, p. 288). Thus, in the ancient world, the role of branding was not just informative. The goal was to create a brand image and increase the value of the product.

In Rome, there was a mass production of oil lamps in factories and workshops, which were exported. They had a signature of modeler or factory stamp and even brand name ("Fortis", "Communis", etc.) (Reiter, 2008). Fabric stamps were found on the figures of terracotta.

The buildings of ancient Rome were made of large quantities of bricks and tiles, and had different types of decoration (Brodrigg, 1992, p. 82). Many of them were marked. It used to be a sign of army units that had made them, controller of production, factory or government property owner, or the head of city. Labelling bricks became frequent in the third century CE when their production became a ruler's monopoly. Some bricks had impressed fingerprints, but the purpose of this practice is yet unknown. Roman numerals were put in some bricks, probably because of the records (Adkins & Adkins, 2004, p. 360).

6.4. Pompeii

The Roman colony of Pompeii was founded in the eighth century BCE, and the volcano Vesuvius destroyed it by the seventh century BCE (Dobran, 2006, p. 141). Political propaganda was developed. Hundreds of slogans and inscriptions found on the walls were used in political elections. There was abbreviation OVF ("Oro vos faciatis" - please vote for him) at the end of the inscription (Milnor, 2014, p. 8). Homeowners with an available wall could control what should be painted or written, as Smith compares with practices on social networks (Smith, 2013). There were found many of pictorial ads for the events, which at the same time promoted sponsors and sponsored events. Advertisements were informative. What could be found there were the sponsor's name, and date of the gladiator spectacle (Galbi, 2009). People were not charged for the tickets, because the events were a means of political propaganda of the ruler. It is obvious that the good practice of advertising and branding has spread among the civilizations in contact.

7. DISCUSSION

The objective of this research was to determine the origin and show historical development of branding and advertising in the ancient civilizations. The research was based on many sources from the fields of history, marketing and branding. Table 1 gives an overview of the branding, advertising and other promotional activities that existed in the ancient civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe. As it can be noted, different forms of branding and advertising were in use in all great ancient civilizations.

The symbols used in ancient civilisations had several different roles:

- 1) Ritual (from the prehistoric period);
- 2) Designation of ownership;
- 3) Differentiation of objects;
- 4) Emphasising the identity and reputation of traders, craftsmen and artists (the function of information and persuasion);
- 5) Emphasising the origin, quality and value of the goods (the function of adding value);
- 6) Reinforcing the image of rulers.

Though in a different form, all functions of branding that exist in the modern era existed in ancient civilizations. They evolved over time, depending on the progress of a particular civilization.

There was even the misconception in the literature that brands were created in the second half of the nineteenth century and before that was a generic commodity. Although in the long historical period the goods were sold from barrels, wooden boxes, bags and small packages did not exist, there were 'surrogates' for the name and trademark of the brand. These were unique symbols, mostly made by seals or otherwise impressed and drawn. Even in ancient civilizations, commodities were not the same. Also, some traders and craftsmen had a better reputation than the others. Their name itself guaranteed the quality and value of the goods. Prominent signs on shops were not totally identical.

With the growing production, there was the need for informing people about the product availability and convincing them to buy from a particular merchant, but also to add value to products. In ancient times there were two types of promotional activities:

- 1) Those aimed at products (primarily advertising);
- 2) Those aimed at promoting the ruler (advertising and public relations).

Promotion focused on products and later, services, caused by the occurrence of competition. Because people were illiterate, the most commonly used media were hawkers (WOM effect) and outdoor advertising (pictorial signs, symbols, graffiti, etc.). This practice was used in all the great ancient civilizations (the area of the Mediterranean, Middle and Far East), although they occurred in different time periods. With the invention of papyrus in Egypt and the development of systems of writing, mass communication was enabled. As the papyrus was exported to other parts of the world, similar practice was transferred to other civilizations.

As we can see in Table 1, the method of marking items and products was also similar in all ancient civilizations. Although they used different symbols, roles were the same: labelling of ownership, emphasising the identity, reputation, origin, quality and increasing the value of the product. In ancient Rome factory stamps were used as a forerunner of corporate branding.

However, personal promotion of rulers can be distinguished between, on the one hand - the ancient civilizations in Africa, Europe and the Middle East and on the other side - civilization in the Far East. In the first-mentioned civilizations, personal promotion and image of the rulers were extremely important. They used all available means of communication and symbols which enhanced the personal image of the ruler. In this way, the rulers, completely unintentionally, made a personal brand. It was different in the Far East, partly because of religion, which was emphasizing other values. Regarding ancient China dynasties, it is evident that the personal promotion of ruler was not nearly as intense as in the first-mentioned civilizations, among which there was much more contact.

Although terms "branding", "advertising" and "promotion" were not known in ancient civilizations, examples of their planned use are evident. As we stated, the roles of branding and advertising evolved over time in order to reach certain goals (marking of ownership, product differentiation, persuading people to buy the product etc.). All activities had a purpose. Personal promotion of rulers was not a random event. The rulers wanted, above all, to influence the people, and to leave traces in the long term. Already during the reign of Ramses II, a variety of fairly integrated means of personal promotion and branding was used. Although the research of the "influence of power" is linked only to the time of ancient Greece, the activities with planned influence on the people were used before.

TABLE 1. The summary of the practice of branding, advertising and other promotional activities in the old civilizations

THE OLD CIVILISATIONS OF AFRICA	
Egypt	
• Cattle marking (identification of the ownership) • Pottery marking (identification of the craftsman or merchant) • Bricks marking (signature of the ruler or a list of team members) • Hawkers and WOM effect (promotion of the goods coming on ships) • The first ad on papyrus • Outdoor advertising (pictorial signs and symbols on the shops) • Intensive self-promotion and personal branding of the rulers (symbols, statues, inscriptions, reliefs, buildings and architecture) • Military propaganda (Seti I, Ramses II)	
THE OLD CIVILISATIONS OF ASIA	
Babylon	
• 'Kudurru' stones (identification of the land ownership) • Bricks marking • Forerunner of trademarks • Outdoor advertising (inscriptions on clay tablets, symbols on wood and stone) • Hawkers and WOM effect (promotion of the goods arriving on the ships) • The first forms of trade sales promotion • Moderate self-promotion of the rulers (inscriptions, reliefs, buildings) • Military propaganda (Nabuchodonosor I)	
Ur (Mesopotamia)	
• The first cylinder seals (identification of the ownership, emphasising of the reputation, document verification and trademark) • The first brands (bottle caps with marks) • The cradle of royal advertising/propaganda	
Nemrut Dagı	
• Self-promotion of the rulers (reliefs, inscriptions, architecture, festivals and celebrations)	
Efes	
• Outdoor advertising (graffiti, informative inscriptions on the walls)	
Indus Valley	
• The seals of steatite, copper and silver (identification of the merchant or craftsman on the pottery, sender or receiver of the goods). They often had the role of a trademark. • The first forms of public relations	
China	
• Cylinder seals (document verification, marking of artistic works) • Pottery and figures marking • Signatures and pseudonyms of collectors (adding value to artistic works) • Hawkers and WOM (promotion of the goods sold every day) • Outdoor advertising (hanging banners, pictorial signs) • Trade fairs • The sale of goods on the street (forerunner of the displays) • The use of lanterns for better promotion of goods • Moderate self-promotion of the rulers (signatures on objects and ritual vases, architecture) • Military propaganda • The invention of block printing	
Sanchi and Ajanta	
• Marking of objects (signatures of craftsmen) • Identification of the person who built a particular object	

THE OLD CIVILISATIONS OF EUROPE

Crete - Knossos

- The seals in the form of a disk of wood, bone and stone (marking of goods)

Greece

- Marking pottery (identification of person who made or painted item)
- Hawkers and WOM (promotions of the goods and services)
- Outdoor advertising (pictorial signs on the shops)
- The forerunner of branded events
- Self-promotion of the ruler and use of public relations (public events, architecture, coins, pottery, figures)
- War propaganda (spreading of disinformation)

Rome

- Marking of pottery and artistic works (signature of artist, merchant or country of origin). These marks were used as trademarks.
- Marking of bricks (military unit, controller of production, owner of the factory or state property)
- The origins of corporate branding (the factory stamps)
- The first brands of lamps (with names)
- Persons as brands (gladiators, carriage drivers, etc.)
- Marking of slaves
- Outdoor advertising (pictorial signs on the shops)
- Hawkers and officially-authorized travelling salesmen (a paid profession)
- Political propaganda (public events, the use of publicly recognizable persons as promoters, engraving characters on coins)
- Events sponsorship
- The first informative newspaper on a papyrus
- The forerunner of social media (putting the information on a papyrus, with comments and content changes)

Pompeii

- Intensive political advertising/propaganda (slogans and graffiti, organizing public games)
- Outdoor advertising
- Sponsorship of events and promotion of sponsors

* The source: The original table as a summary of the research

As shown in Table 1, in all ancient civilizations, branding activities as well as various forms of promotional activities were used. Branding and advertising have always been interconnected, even in the distant past. It must be emphasized that in many cases, promotion was the consequence of branding, i.e. product labeling. However, the occurrence of certain promotional activities has further stimulated development of branding. For example, in ancient Egypt and Babylon, the use of hawkers for promotion of goods has caused the need to further differentiation of products. Similarly, in the case of personal promotion of the rulers, means of branding and advertising were interconnected. Although the concept of personal branding did not exist in the distant past, personal branding has largely been used in practice.

The contribution of this paper lies in a detailed analysis of the practice of branding and advertising in ancient civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe, which is only partially documented in the literature. The paper was particularly focused on finding similarities

and differences in these particular activities between ancient civilizations and their comparison with modern practice. As the research provides a precise chronological overview of events, it can be very helpful to other authors in the field of marketing as the basis for their future research. On the other hand, this research can be helpful to authors from the fields of history that are not familiar enough with the topic of marketing, i.e., branding and advertising.

This research has certain limitations. As we previously stated, there are very few sources of marketing literature and documented evidence about the activities of ancient civilizations in general. Therefore, the literature on history is used as the basis of research. Many conclusions are made by simply linking the historical facts and events, which means that they are to some extent subjective. Also, the research did not include the ancient civilizations of North and South America. Although the Europeans discovered America in the late 15th century, many civilizations in this area have been living there for many years BCE. It

would be very interesting in the future to investigate the roots of branding and advertising in these ancient civilizations, and to compare them with the activities of the great civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe. Recommendation for future research is also to investigate the same subject together from the aspect of the fields of history and marketing. New evidence will probably be found, as historians and marketers have a different perspective on events. Also evident is a lack of research on the practice of branding and advertising in the Middle Ages, which should be tackled in the future.

8. CONCLUSIONS

The study confirmed that in all the great ancient civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe, there were several different forms of branding and advertising activities, with similar roles as in contemporary era. Symbols used in ancient civilizations had many roles, which is quite similar to the roles of branding today: marking of ownership, differentiation of goods, emphasizing the quality and origin of goods, adding value and emphasizing the reputation of individuals (rulers). Also, different forms of promotional activities have been used in ancient civilisations (advertising, sales promotion, trade promotion, public relations and publicity, even sponsorship). These activities can be divided into two groups: activities used for promotion of products (primarily advertising and sales promotion) and activities used for promotion of rulers (advertising and public relations).

The need to promote the products emerged with the development of trade and the occurrence of a large number of competitors. It was necessary to convince the people that the product of a particular trader or craftsman was better than the product of their competitors. One of the conclusions of this study was that social development has created a need for marking and differentiating objects with symbols, even in ancient civilizations.

It should be noted that the activities of branding were quite similar in all great ancient civilizations. Some basic forms of advertising and promotions were also very similar in the civilizations of Africa, Asia and Europe (pictorial signs on shops, using of hawkers for the promotion of products, different types of seals). However, the self promotion of the rulers was much more prominent in the civilizations of North Africa, Europe and the Middle East, as opposed to the civilizations in the Far East.

It is clear that the development of branding and advertising were mutually conditioned. Branding, as marking of items, was created first, but the increase in production and trade caused the occurrence of advertising and other promotional activities, as a way to influence the sale of goods. Rising competition caused the need to raise the value of products by various means as well, and that customers were not only informed, but also persuaded in the value of certain products. Mutually-conditioned development of branding and advertising is obvious in the recent period, but their interweaving occurred in the long-distant past.

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Sažetak:

Poreklo i istorijski razvoj brendiranja i oglašavanja u starim civilizacijama Afrike, Azije i Evrope

Sladana Starčević

Razvoj brendiranja i oglašavanja oduvek su bili međusobno uslovljeni. Cilj ovog istraživanja je da se utvrdi poreklo i prikaže istorijski razvoj brendiranja i oglašavanja u starim civilizacijama Afrike, Azije i Evrope. Primenjen je istorijski metod istraživanja. Predstavljeni su novi dokazi o primeni različitih oblika brendiranja, oglašavanja i drugih promotivnih aktivnosti u starom veku. Pokazalo se da je društveni razvoj nametnuo potrebu za označavanjem predmeta i promotivnim aktivnostima. Praksa je bila

slična u svim starim civilizacijama, bez obzira na različite vremenske periode. Postojala su dva tipa brendiranja i oglašavanja: komercijalno i lično. Funkcije brendiranja i oglašavanja bile su raznovrsne i slične njihovim savremenim funkcijama.

Ključne reči: brend, oglašavanje, istorija brendiranja, istorija oglašavanja, stare civilizacije

Kontakt:

Doc. dr Sladana Starčević

sladjana.starcevic@gmail.com

Fakultet za ekonomiju, finansije i administraciju (FEFA), Univerzitet Singidunum

Bulevar Zorana Đinđića 44, Beograd

Innovativeness of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises in the Republic of Serbia and Countries of the European Union

Miroljub Nikolić, Dušan Cvetanović,
Danijela Despotović

Abstract: The paper provides a comparative analysis of the results of innovation activities in enterprises of different size from EU member and candidate states during the period 2008-2010. Particularly, the paper considers position of Serbia compared to the EU average and average of some neighboring countries (Hungary, Slovenia, Croatia, Romania and Bulgaria). The results confirmed the existence of a high correlation between size of enterprise and its innovation activities. The percentage of innovation activities in large enterprises is higher than in small enterprises. Serbia is lagging behind the EU average, regarding innovativeness level in all types of enterprises (classified by size). However, when Serbia is compared to neighboring countries, the situation is much different. Small enterprises from Serbia are more innovative than small enterprises from neighboring countries. The situation is similar in medium-sized enterprises. Large enterprises from Serbia are more innovative than enterprises from Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania, and less innovative than large enterprises from Slovenia and Croatia.

Keywords: innovation, innovativeness, SMEs, Serbia, EU.

JEL classification: E60,O30

INTRODUCTION

Innovations are the basis for developing knowledge-based economy and they are crucial for the growth and survival of an enterprise (Acs, de Groot & Nijkamp, 2013). Knowledge-based economies are characterized by creation, diffusion and utilization of knowledge and innovations (Despotovic, Cvetanović & Nedić, 2014). Creation, exchange and successful commercialization of knowledge through innovation are sources of productivity growth, value added, competitiveness, economic growth, job creation and well-being in every society. Innovations are crucial because of their significant impact on all aspects of knowledge-based economy (Johannessen & Olsen, 2010; Cvetanović & Despotovic, 2014).

New knowledge enables development of innovation (new products, services, processes, etc.); in turn, innovations (as the most important source of change) enable development of knowledge-based economy. Knowledge-based activities stimulate innovation (Pérez-Luño et al., 2011). The relationship between knowledge, innovation and dynamic economy is complex and inter dependent because: knowledge is the main source of innovation; innovations change and build society; and the very nature of innovation changes in the knowledge-based economy (Zhou, & Li, 2012; Cvetanović, Despotović & Nedić, 2012; Filipović, Nikolić & Ilić, 2015). Although not all innovations arise only as a result of R&D activities, knowledge is the most important factor for development of innovation. Knowledge-based societies enable an efficient exchange of knowledge between scientific research institutions and enterprises and so provide a favorable environment for creation of new knowledge and development and commercialization of innovations (Quintane et al., 2011).

Economic theory pays considerable attention to innovation since differences in innovativeness significantly determine the level of development and opportunities for growth and development of an enterprise, economy and society as a whole. Only economies with numerous innovation-oriented enterprises that efficiently realize their innovative ideas can provide high employment and income and create environment for future sustainable economic growth (Cvetanović et al., 2015). Innovative small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are very important in the mod-

ern knowledge-based economy. Innovative SMEs are the most important source of competitiveness, new employment and economic growth. These enterprises are the most dynamic, the most flexible and the most efficient part of the economy and they form the basis for economic development. (Pokrajac, 2010; Nedic et al., 2015).

SMEs are driving force of modern economies because of their multiple contributions to technological innovation, employment, increasing export, dynamizing competition, etc. (Oksanen & Rilla, 2009). Their innovative ability is of great importance because innovations provide competitive advantage for an enterprise, the industry, and the economy as a whole (Filipović, Nikolić & Cvetanović, 2015). New and existing innovative SMEs contribute to overall productivity and competitiveness of the economy by squeezing out less productive enterprises. Innovation is a powerful tool for new small enterprises to successfully enter a market and change current situation. Also innovation enables existing enterprises to maintain or improve their market positions. Innovative SMEs participate in the knowledge flow within the innovation systems, not only as passive users of knowledge but increasingly as a significant source of knowledge (Van de Vrande et al., 2009).

Globalization and development of knowledge-based economy have facilitated access to knowledge and enable development of non-technological and social innovations. Changes in the business environment (revenue growth, increase in the number of market niches, change in technology and development of open innovation) reduced the structural shortcomings of SMEs arising from their limited opportunities for achieving economies of scale, which in turn increased the importance of new and small enterprises in the innovation process. Innovative SMEs have become the most important development potential of the modern economy. However, due to the surroundings where they operate, i.e. insufficiently stimulative business environment that is not sufficiently adjusted to the development requirements of innovative SMEs, many SMEs do not recognize the importance of developing innovations, or do not satisfy the necessary conditions for realizing their full potential to innovate.

Innovative SMEs are faced with numerous problems and barriers, especially in terms of financing, availability of research institutions' activity results, access to international market, administrative barriers, opportunities of hiring qualified personnel, etc. All these issues create a need for a systematic, well-designed policies and specific programs of support

which should enable SMEs to utilize their development and innovation potentials.

Also, there is unequal distribution of innovations within the SMEs sector between a small number of highly innovative SMEs with high growth potential and a large number of SMEs that are not innovation-oriented and have very low innovation potential. Therefore, policy aimed at stimulating innovation should make a clear distinction between these two groups of SMEs, and should understand and take into account differences in their business environments, their methods and motives for innovation.

In the EU, innovation is viewed as the most important factor in maintaining and improving competitiveness, creating new jobs and improving the quality of life (Kaufmann, Tsangar & Vrontis, 2012; Tilford & Whyte, 2010). Therefore, encouraging innovation, by stimulating and improving the drivers of innovation activities (primarily, innovative SMEs), is one of the most important goals of European development policy (Lundvall & Rodrigues, 2002; Lundvall & Lorenz, 2012).

The paper will explore: 1) statistical monitoring of innovation for the purposes of Eurostat i.e., the European Commission, which is based on survey of innovation activity in enterprises (CIS), 2) proportion of innovative enterprises (% of all enterprises) in the analyzed economies and 3) type of realization of innovation activities (independently, based on their own knowledge and resources or in cooperation with other enterprises within the group, suppliers, customers, faculties and universities, private and public research institutes, specialized research organizations).

STATISTICAL MONITORING OF INNOVATION FOR THE PURPOSES OF EUROSTAT

For the purpose of monitoring innovativeness at the EU level, Eurostat and relevant statistical organizations in the EU member states collect data on innovation in the EU in order to satisfy the needs of development policy makers and the scientific community. Data obtained enable decision-making about the need for and methods of helping and encouraging innovativeness. These data also help in creating various initiatives and programs such as Innovation Union and European Research Area in the context of the EU development strategy named Europe 2020.

Statistical monitoring of innovation for the purposes of Eurostat i.e. the European Commission is based

on survey of innovation activity in enterprises (CIS)¹, which is conducted in all EU member states and candidate states (Iceland, Serbia and Turkey) and Norway. This survey statistically monitors the activity in enterprises in terms of products/services innovation, process innovation, organizational innovation and marketing innovation. The legal basis for conducting survey and collecting data on innovation activity in enterprises is Regulation 1450/2004 of 13 August 2004 (1608/2003/EC) concerning the production and development of Community statistics on innovation.

In the survey research of innovation activity in enterprises ad hoc modules are developed, focusing on internal and external skills and methods to stimulate new ideas and creativity. The results emphasize the differences between innovative and non-innovative enterprises. In addition, the survey provides information on enterprises that acquire specific knowledge from the environment, as well as information on enterprises that rely heavily on internal capacities (e.g., in areas such as multimedia, web design, market research, mathematics, etc.). Data obtained also show which methods are considered as successful for encouraging creativity: brainstorming sessions, multi-disciplinary and/or cross-functional work teams, training, job rotation or financial and non-financial incentives to motivate employees, etc.

Survey of innovation activity in enterprises, which is conducted for the Eurostat's purposes, also contains data on innovativeness of enterprises in Serbia. So the paper will provide a comparative overview of the results of innovation activities in enterprises in the EU member states and candidate states (including Serbia) by multiple aspects of innovativeness, using the latest available data for reporting period 2008-2010. The great deal of attention is paid to the position of Serbia compared to the EU average and some neighboring countries (Hungary, Slovenia, Croatia, Romania and Bulgaria).

The total number of enterprises surveyed in all EU-27 states is 730,700, with the highest coverage in Germany (127,073 enterprises), Italy (118,567) and Spain (75,468) and the lowest in Malta (727), Cyprus (1,405) and Luxembourg (1,509). Although the structure is not the same in every country, most enterprises surveyed (from 93.1% in Slovakia to 98.0% in Italy) are SMEs. The survey covers enterprises from basic NACE activities related to innovation activities (Mining and quarrying – B, Manufacturing – C, Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply – D, Water

supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities – E, Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles – G46, Transportation and storage – H, Publishing activities – J58, Telecommunications – J61, Computer programming, consultancy and related activities – J62, Information service activities – J63, Financial and insurance activities – K, and Architectural and engineering activities; technical testing and analysis – M71).

EXTENT OF INNOVATION

Among the EU member states, the highest shares of innovative enterprises in 2010 are observed in Germany (79.3 % of all enterprises), Luxembourg (68.1 %) and Belgium (60.9 %); in more than half of the EU-27 states, the share of innovative enterprises in the total number of analyzed enterprises is over 50% (the average is 52.9%)². The lowest shares of innovative enterprises in the total number of enterprises are observed in Bulgaria (27.1%), Poland (28.1%) and Latvia (29.9%).

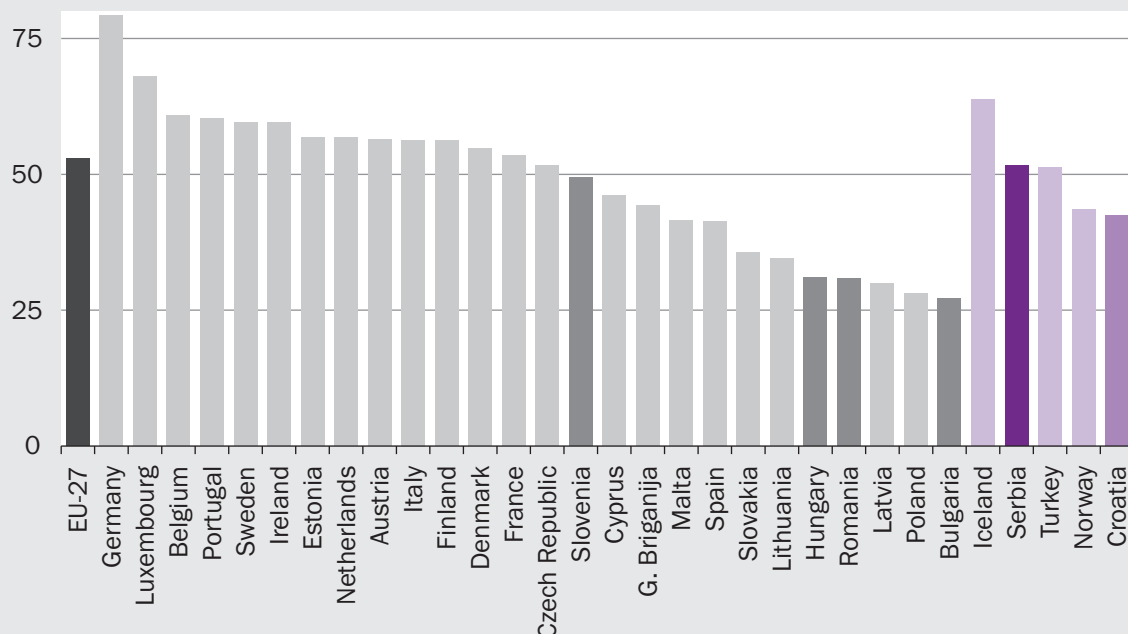
Regarding the proportion of innovative enterprises, Serbia (51.7%) is close to the European average (52.9%) and is above all observed neighboring countries (Bulgaria 27.1%, Romania 30.8%, Hungary 31.1%, Croatia 42.4% and Slovenia 49.4%) (Figure 1).

Enterprise size analysis shows that there is a high correlation between size of enterprise and its innovation activities. The percentage of innovation activities in large enterprises is higher than in small enterprises; as a rule, enterprise-size growth increases proportion of innovative enterprises. This applies to all European countries observed, as well as Serbia.

Serbia is lagging behind the EU-27 average, regarding innovativeness level in all types of enterprises classified by size (small, medium-sized and large enterprises). However, when Serbia is compared to neighboring countries, the situation is much different (Figure 2). Small enterprises in Serbia are more innovative than small enterprises in all neighboring countries observed (Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania and Slovenia). The situation is similar in medium-sized enterprises, because medium-sized enterprises in Serbia are more innovation-oriented than medium-sized enterprises in all neighboring countries observed (excluding Slovenia). The situation is somewhat different

¹ The Community Innovation Survey

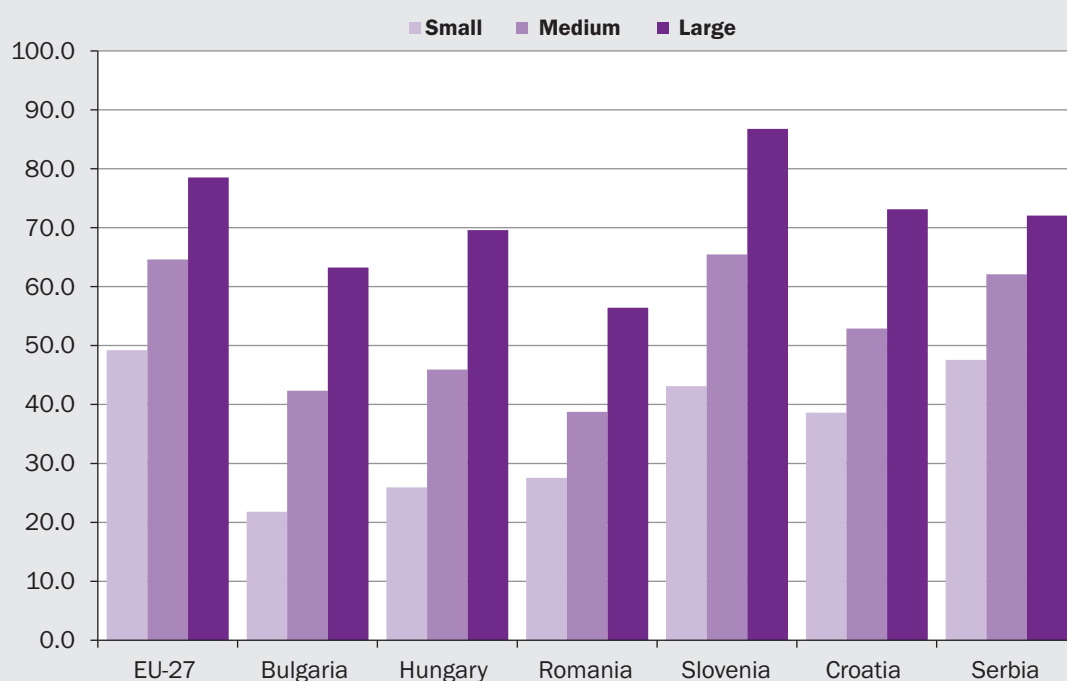
² With the exception of Greece, in 14 out of 26 European countries observed, innovative enterprises are dominant in the economy; in remaining 12 countries, proportion of innovative enterprises is under 50%.

FIGURE 1 Proportion of innovative enterprises, 2010 (% of all enterprises)

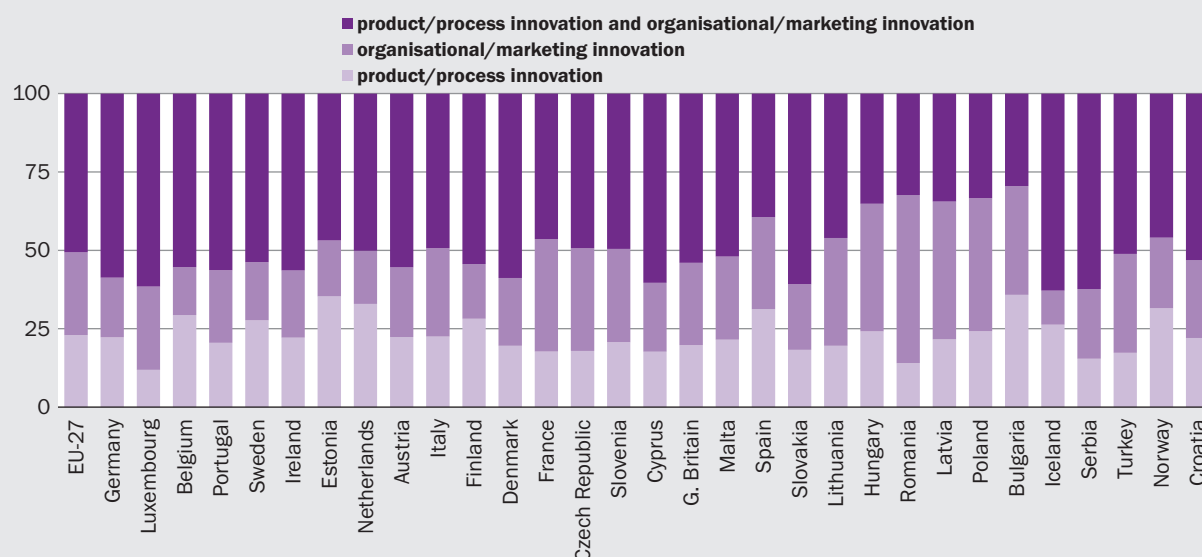
SOURCE: Eurostat (online data code: inn_cis7_type)

in terms of large enterprises' innovativeness, because large enterprises in Serbia are more innovative than enterprises in Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania but

less innovative than large enterprises in Slovenia and Croatia.

FIGURE 2 Innovative enterprises by size in Serbia and neighboring countries

SOURCE: Eurostat (online data code: inn_cis7_type)

FIGURE 3: Proportion of innovative enterprises by type of innovation, 2010, (% of all innovative enterprises)

SOURCE: Eurostat (online data code: inn_cis7_type)

Enterprises can be divided into three main categories by type of innovation activity: enterprises that create product innovations and/or process innovations (without innovations in the field of organization and/or marketing); enterprises that innovate in the organization and/or marketing (without product and/or process innovations); and enterprises that have developed both product/process innovations and organization/marketing innovations.

The EU countries with high shares of innovative enterprises are characterized by a significant proportion of innovative enterprises that combine product/process innovation and organizational/marketing innovation (Figure 3). Countries like Germany (58.7%)³, Luxembourg (61.5%) and Belgium (55.4%) with higher shares of innovative enterprises in the total number of enterprises are also characterized by a higher proportion of innovative enterprises that develop simultaneously both types of innovation (product/process innovation and organizational/marketing innovation). By contrast, countries with low shares of innovative enterprises in the total number of enterprises have proportionally less innovative enterprises that develop both types of innovation: in Latvia 34.5% of innovative enterprises develop both types of innovation; the shares in Romania, Poland and Bulgaria are 32.3%, 33.3 % and 29.5%, respectively (Figure 4).

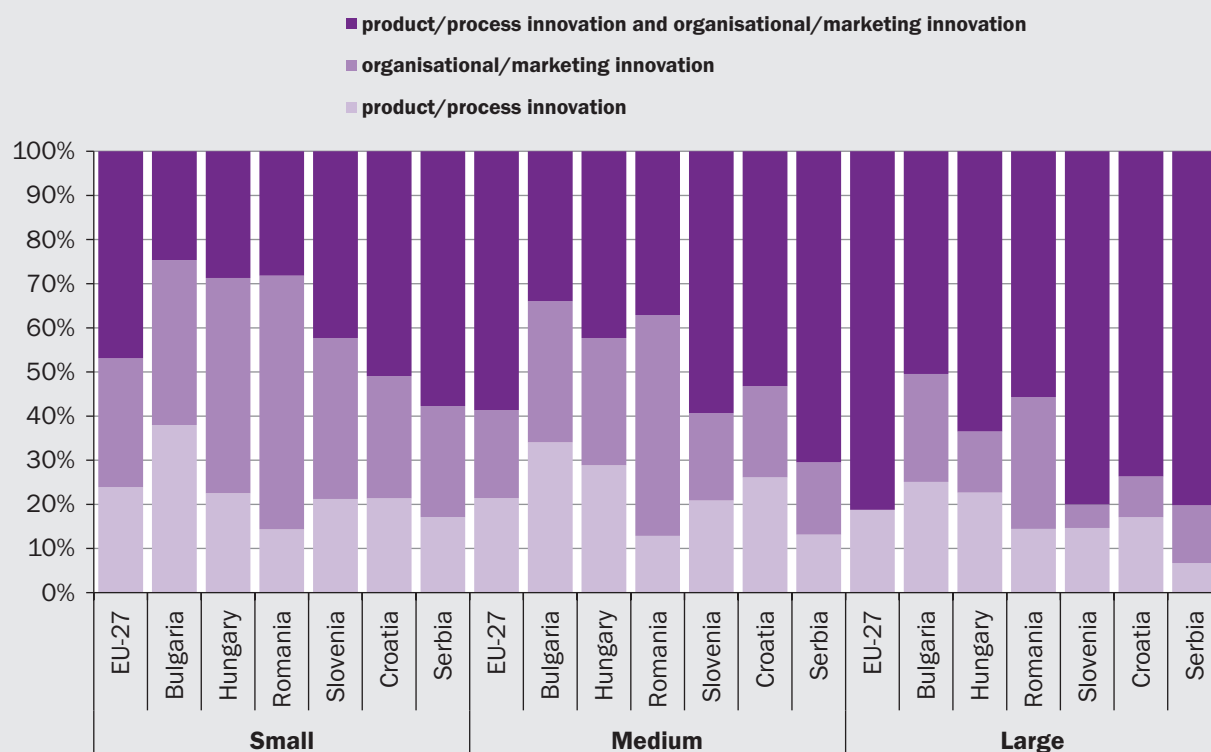
³ for more, see Table 60: Proportion of innovative enterprises by type of innovation, 2010(% of all innovative enterprises)

Like the EU countries with high shares of innovative enterprises, most innovative enterprises in Serbia develop simultaneously both types of innovation. Regarding this indicator, innovative enterprises in Serbia lag only behind innovative enterprises from Iceland; they are above the EU-27 average and their share is significantly higher than in all neighboring countries.

The situation is similar with innovative enterprises regarding their size. All three size classes of enterprises in Serbia dominantly develop both types of innovation, but large enterprises are dominant according to this indicator. Regarding the neighboring countries, only large innovative enterprises in Slovenia show higher share in both types of innovation. To a large extent the situation is similar with small and medium-sized innovative enterprises; in developing both types of innovation, SMEs in Serbia are dominant compared to all neighboring countries.

A significant indicator of an economy's innovative ability is the number of i.e., share of non-innovative enterprises in the total number of enterprises (Figure 5). Overall, share of non-innovative enterprises in Serbia is above the average and higher than shares in the leading innovative EU countries. However when Serbia is compared to neighboring countries, the situation is much different, because the proportion of non-innovative enterprises in Serbia is less than proportion of non-innovative enterprises in all observed neighboring countries (Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, Slovenia and Croatia). Regarding the proportion of

FIGURE 4: Proportion of innovative enterprises by type of innovation and size, 2010 (% of all enterprises)

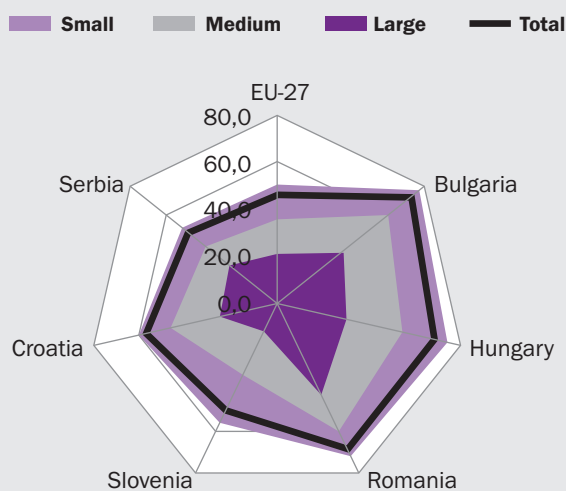


SOURCE: Eurostat (online data code: inn_cis7_type)

non-innovative enterprises by size class, the situation is mainly the same. In terms of percentage, the highest proportion of non-innovative enterprises is observed with small enterprises; however proportion of non-innovative small enterprises in Serbia is lower than in neighboring countries. The situation is similar in

medium-sized enterprises, except that proportion of non-innovative medium-sized enterprises in Slovenia (as % of all medium-sized enterprises) is lower than in Serbia. Different situation is observed only with large enterprises, where the percentage share of non-innovative enterprises in the total number of enterprises is

FIGURE 5: Proportion of non-innovative enterprises by size class in selected countries, 2010 (% of all enterprises)



SOURCE: Eurostat (online data code: inn_cis7_type)

the lowest. Share of large non-innovative enterprises in Serbia (as % of all large enterprises) is lower than in Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania, but higher than in Slovenia and Croatia.

INNOVATIVE COOPERATION

Enterprises can perform innovative activities independently (based on their own knowledge and resources) or in cooperation with other enterprises within the group, suppliers, customers, faculties and universities, private and public research institutes, specialized research organizations, etc. Depending on whether innovative enterprises cooperate with each other on their innovation activities, we can distinguish two groups of innovative enterprises (enterprises which perform innovation activities in cooperation with others and enterprises which perform innovation activities independently).

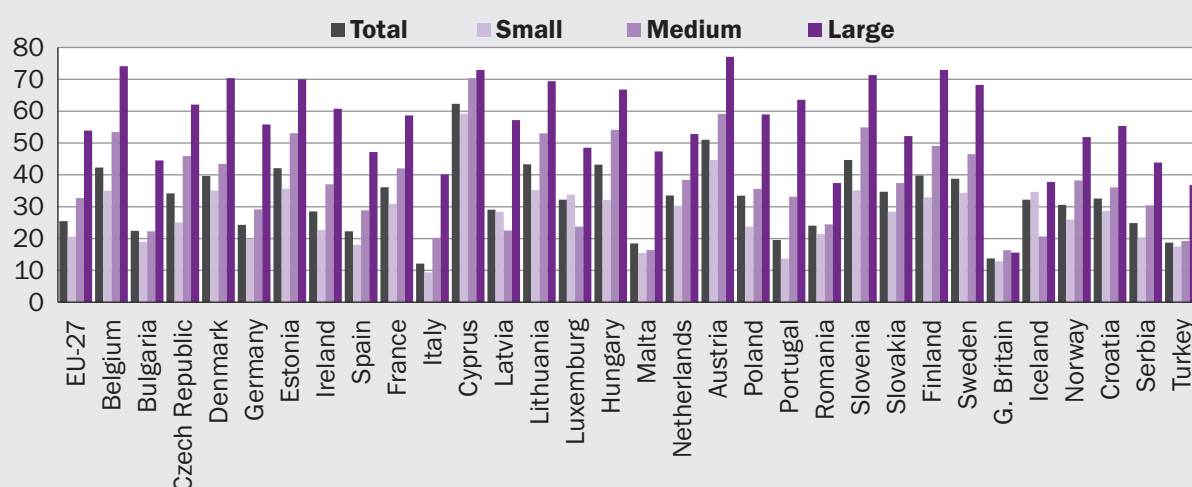
In the EU, about ¼ of innovative enterprises (enterprises that develop product and/or process innovation) are engaged in cooperation on innovation activities, as opposed to the remaining 74.5% of enterprises which perform innovation activities by relying only on their own internal resources. The greatest amount of innovative cooperation is achieved by innovative enterprises in Cyprus (62.3% of all innovative enterprises), Austria (51.0%), Slovenia (44.7%), Lithuania (43.3%) and Hungary (43.2 %); the smallest amount of innovative cooperation is achieved by innovative

enterprises in Italy (12.1%), the UK (13.7%), Malta (18.5%), Portugal (19.5%), Spain (22.3%) and Bulgaria (22.4%). Innovative enterprises in Serbia rely more heavily on internal resources in innovation activities compared to the EU average, as well as compared to Hungary, Slovenia and Croatia; innovative enterprises in Serbia cooperate more with other enterprises and institutions compared to innovative enterprises in Bulgaria and Romania (Figure 6).

The classification of innovative enterprises by size shows that enterprises of different size differ among themselves in terms of innovative cooperation. This means that small, medium-sized and large enterprises behave differently in terms of innovative cooperation; as a rule, enterprise-size growth increases an amount of cooperation among enterprises. This applies to all countries observed, except for Latvia, Luxembourg and Iceland where innovative medium-sized enterprises cooperate less than innovative small enterprises. This also applies to enterprises in Serbia since 43.9% of large innovative enterprises are engaged in cooperation on innovativeness with other entities, as opposed to medium-sized (30.4%) and small enterprises (20.4%).

Enterprises can establish innovative cooperation in various ways and with various entities. Regarding innovation, enterprises in Serbia mostly cooperate with suppliers of equipment, materials, components and software (20.1%); clients or customers (18.7%), with other enterprises within the enterprise group (16.9%), consultants, commercial labs or private R&D institutes

FIGURE 6: Proportion of product and/or process innovative enterprises engaged in any type of cooperation by size class, 2010 (% of all product and/or process innovative enterprises)



SOURCE: Eurostat (online data code: inn_cis7_coop)

(15.4%), competitors or other enterprises of the same sector (14.7%), universities or other higher education institutions (13.9%), and the Government or public research institutes (10.4%). Regarding neighboring countries, domestic innovative enterprises cooperate more with other enterprises within the enterprise group, compared to all observed countries. In terms of cooperation with the Government or public research institutes, domestic enterprises cooperate more compared to neighboring countries (excluding Slovenia) and in terms of cooperation with consultants, commercial labs or private R&D institutes as well as universities and other higher education institutions, enterprises in Serbia cooperate less than enterprises in Hungary and Slovenia. Regarding cooperation with suppliers, customers, competitors or other enterprises of the same sector, enterprises in Serbia cooperate less than enterprises in Hungary, Slovenia and Croatia.

According to enterprise size, domestic SMEs (in the field of scientific cooperation) mostly cooperate with suppliers and customers; the lowest level of cooperation is established with universities or other higher education institutions and the Government or public research institutes (Figure 7). Unlike SMEs, large domestic enterprises establish the highest level of cooperation with suppliers, other enterprises within the enterprise group and universities or other higher education institutions. In terms of percentage, large domestic enterprises establish the lowest level of co-

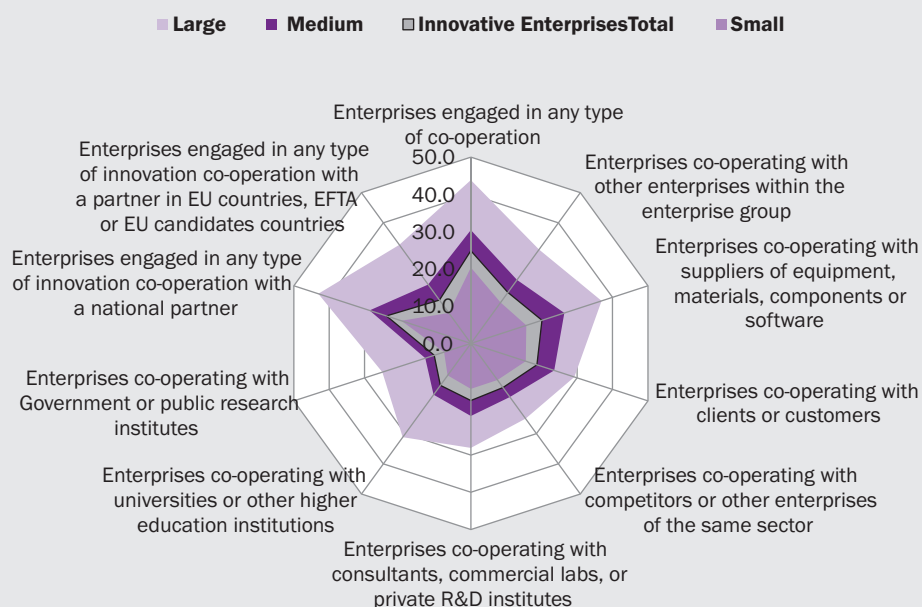
operation with competitors or other enterprises of the same sector and the Government or public research institutes. This indicates that SMEs are more market-oriented (toward suppliers and customers) while large enterprises establish stronger links with universities and other higher education institutions as well as enterprises within the enterprise group.

Extent of enterprises' orientation toward cooperation with partners in Serbia or with partners from other countries is important for considering openness to cooperation and possibility of transferring innovative knowledge and results. Generally, enterprises in Serbia to a much greater extent cooperate with partners within the country (23.8%) than with partners from the EU member states, the EU candidate states or the EFTA states (14.4%). This applies to all enterprises regardless of their size, but large enterprises are more cooperation-oriented (whether the partners are domestic or foreign) compared to medium-sized, and especially to small enterprises.

CONCLUSION

Regarding the proportion of innovative enterprises, Serbia is close to the European average and is above all observed neighboring countries (Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, Croatia and Slovenia). As a rule, enterprise-size growth increases proportion of innovative enterprises in all observed countries.

FIGURE 7: Types of co-operation partner for product and process innovation



SOURCE: Eurostat (online data code: inn_cis7_coop)

Most innovative enterprises develop simultaneously product/process innovation and organizational/marketing innovation. Domestic innovative enterprises rely more heavily on internal resources in innovation activities compared to the EU average, as well as compared to Hungary, Slovenia and Croatia. Also, domestic innovative enterprises cooperate more closely with other enterprises and institutions compared to similar enterprises in Bulgaria and Romania. Large and SMEs behave differently in terms of innovative cooperation; as a rule, enterprise-size growth increases an amount of cooperation among enterprises.

In the field of scientific cooperation, domestic enterprises mostly cooperate with suppliers and customers; the lowest level of cooperation is established with universities or other higher education institutions and the Government or public research institutes. The most common form of marketing innovation in domestic enterprises is the introduction of a new method for pricing goods or services. In developing new ideas and innovations, domestic enterprises most heavily rely on staff training, as opposed to the EU enterprises which mostly use method of ideas elaboration. SMEs in Serbia more often use financial incentives to motivate employees to be more innovative.

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Sažetak:

Inovativnost malih i srednjih preduzeća u Republici Srbiji i zemljama Evropske Unije

Miroljub Nikolić, Dušan Cvetanović,
Danijela Despotović

U radu je data komparativna analiza rezultata inovacionih aktivnosti preduzeća različitih veličina iz zemalja članica EU i zemalja kandidata za članstvo u EU u periodu 2008 - 2010. godine. Posebno je sagledavan položaj Srbije u odnosu na prosek EU i pojedinih zemalja iz okruženja (Mađarske, Slovenije, Hrvatske, Rumunije i Bugarske). Rezultati su potvrdili postojanje visoke korelacije između veličine preduzeća i njihovih inovacionih aktivnosti. U velikim preduzećima je procenat inovacionih aktivnosti veći u odnosu na mala preduzeća. Za Srbiju je karakteristično zaostajanje u nivou inovativnosti kod

svih tipova preduzeća prema veličini u odnosu na prosek EU. Međutim u odnosu na zemlje u okruženju situacija je značajno drugačija. Mala preduzeća iz Srbije su inovativnija od malih preduzeća iz zemalja u okruženju. Slična je situacija i kod srednjih preduzeća. Velika preduzeća iz Srbije inovativnija su od preduzeća iz Bugarske, Mađarske i Rumunije, a manje su inovativna od istih iz Slovenije i Hrvatske.

Ključne reči: inovacije, inovativnost, mala i srednja preduzeća, Srbija, EU.

Kontakt:

Miroljub Nikolić, PhD

Ministry of Economy, Department for Regional Development
and Strategic Analyses of the Economy
miroljubnk@gmail.com

Dušan Cvetanović, PhD Candidate

University of Niš, Faculty of Economics
dusan.cvetanovic@gmail.com

Danijela Despotović, PhD, Associate Professor

University of Kragujevac, Faculty of Economics
ddespotovic@kg.ac.rs

Angažovanje slavnih sportista u promociji proizvoda i usluga

Sretenka Dugalić, Jovana Ivić

Apstrakt: Promocija upotrebom lika sportista se razlikuje od ostalih promotivnih kampanja; jedina sličnost je u tome što je u pitanju jak, efikasan način koji opredeljuje kupovine. Svrha rada je da objasni kako uspeši u sportu (tenisu), utiču na oblikovanje mišljenja, stavova, i navika pojedinaca. Rad je teorijsko-empirijskog karaktera i sastavljen je iz tri celine. U prvom delu su objašnjeni teorijski aspekti, a u drugom delu metodologija neophodna za proces analize i dobijanje rezultata istraživanja koji mogu imati praktičnu primenu u marketingu kroz transformaciju sportskog rezultata u materijalnu vrednost. U trećem delu su sublimirani rezultati istraživanja koji su osnova za diskusiju i prezentovanje zaključaka do kojih se došlo u istraživanju. Predmet istraživanja su sport, sportisti, teniseri i teniserke, kao kreatori sportskog doživljaja, i njihov uticaj na ciljne grupe koji se može komercijalno eksploatisati. Posebno su istraženi uticaji karakteristika ličnosti slavnih tenisera putem varijabli: izgled, iskustvo, inteligencija, profesionalizam i druge lične osobine, kao i angažovanje i aktivnosti izvan okvira profesionalnog tenisa.

Ključne reči: sportski marketing, promocija upotrebom lika sportista, tenis

JEL Classification: M37

UVOD

U radu je istraženo da li je i koliko važno ko i na koji način širi posredno imidž sporta u zemlji i inostranstvu, koje osobine i kakvo ponašanje sportista ima pozitivni uticaj na javnost, i koliko se to što određeni sportista svojim rezultatima i ponašanjem utiče na stavove građana može upotrebiti u promociji. Pitanja su obrađena redosledom: 1/da li je i kolikopopularna delatnost iz koje dolaze poznate ličnosti; 2/ kako ispitanici vrednuju ime/zvučnost, rezultat (popularnost) nekog sportiste ili koje su to relevantne osobine ličnosti (varijable) pomoću kojih se može meriti snaga privlačenja fanova i najšireg auditorijuma; i 3/ postoji li i koliki je uticaj slavnih sportista na lojalnost ispitanika. Kako imidž oscilira, potrebno je meriti stavove ljudi pre i posle značajnijih događaja (npr. izostanka rezultata ili sportskih poraza), kako bi se uzeli u obzir i realni, umereni stavovi koji nisu rezultat opšte euforije. Autori rada su zato kasnijim istraživanjima, uz pomoć longitudinalne metode i većeg uzorka izvršili merenje ovih promena.

Cilj istraživanja je objasniti: 1/ da li određene lične osobine sportista, njihove sposobnosti, profesionalna dostignuća, aktivnosti van njihove profesije i drugo, imaju uticaj na stavove ispitanika i kojim intenzitetom; 2/ postojanje uzročno-posledične veze između popularnosti sportista, tj. zastupljenosti u medijima kojima su ljudi okruženi i svakodnevno ih koriste (televizija, novine, časopisi, radio, Internet) i kvaliteta promocije (u smislu njenog poboljšanja); i 3/ koji elementi, aktivnosti i osobine sportista utiču na stvaranje svesti ljudi (što predstavlja osnovnu svrhu promocije), i njihovu odluku ili stav koji zauzimaju kod kupovine.

Istraživanje je važno za sportske organizacije, organizatore sportskih događaja, kompanije, proizvođače (one koji ceo ili deo prihoda ostvaruju tim putem), zbog ogromnih suma novca koji ulažu u ovu vrstu promocije svojih robnih marki. Ekonomska korist kroz sport i putem sporta (poreski efekti, zaposlenost, rast tržišne vrednosti sporta i zemlje) odražava se na društveno-ekonomsku korist nacije, privlačenjem inostranih ulaganja, simpatija pripadnika drugih nacija, i opštu političku klimu, koja može ublažiti druge negativne trendove: animozitet pripadnika drugih nacija, pad ekonomskih pokazatelja, sankcije koje se protežu na sport i sl.

Svrha promocije je privući i zadržati naklonost ljudi, pa je ovo koristan instrument održavanja lojalnosti. Cilj je još utvrditi i proceniti značaj i snagu tog privlačenja (da li određeni sportista u izvesnoj meri može uticati na stvaranje i održavanje lojalnosti i u kojem obimu, posmatrano kroz vremensku skalu njegove popularnosti).

1. TEORIJSKI IZVORI O PROMOCIJI U KOJOJ SU ANGAŽOVANI SLAVNISPORTISTI

Neopipljivi sportski proizvodi se prema nivou korisnosti koju daju korisnicima, segmentiraju na: sportski doživljaj, sportski događaj, sportski rezultat, sportski imidž i sportsku marku. Slavni sportisti zbog rezultata koje postižu stiču imidž koji se kvantifikuje u vidu ranga, medalje, rekorda i sl. On može prerasti u sportsku marku, a kompanije imaju interes da taj imidž transferišu ka sebi uz određenu nadoknadu. Sportski imidž se odnosi na stvaranje pozitivne svesti o sportistima koji postižu izvanredne rezultate i time doprinose svom ugledu i ugledu sportske grane. Često njihov imidž prelazi okvire državne i kontinentalne granice, pa se uz pomoć njega može uspostaviti bitna i jaka veza između proizvođača i potrošača, ako se iskoristi na pravi način. Istraživanjem su ustanovljene kvantitativne relacije koje postoje između ispitanika i poznatih ličnosti koje utiču na njihove stavove. Maričić (2011, str. 403) smatra da se „glavni izvori uticaja na formiranje stavova potrošača nalaze u neposrednom i prošlom iskustvu potrošača. Iskustvo zavisno od vrste potrebe, selektivnosti pažnje i karakteristike ličnosti utiče na formiranje stavova potrošača, a pod uticajem još referentne grupe, posebno porodice i prijatelja“. Roll (2013) identifikaciju sa poznatim sportistima objašnjava delimično kao rezultat određenih aspekata ponašanja poznatog sportiste ili njegovih ličnih osobina, tj. načina na koji ga javnost vidi.

Sticanje komercijalne prednosti pomoću sporta je složen posao; sportski događaji variraju po veličini i prestižu, potrošači su takođe različiti kada se posmatra njihovo poznavanje događaja i uključenost u njega, a sponzori određuju u kojoj meri će biti prisutni u odnosu na konkurenciju. Sponzorstvo svojim oblicima i mehanizmima dominira sportskim marketingom. S obzirom na to da postoji niz faktora koji mogu biti uključeni u sponzorstvo, parcijalni pokušaji da se prouči način kako ono funkcioniše ne daje potpuni uvid. U literaturi postoji više načina, a izdvaja se 7 različitih mehanizama (Kahle i Riley, 2004, str. 175) putem kojih

sponzorstvo može uticati na vrednost brenda, pozicioniranje i druge relevantne marketing varijable, koje nisu međusobno isključive (jer 2 ili više mogu korespondirati). Zajedno, oni čine skup načina, sortiranih prema količini svesti potrošača potrebnoj da sponzorstvo funkcioniše koji se mogu testirati u stvarnosti. Po rastućem redosledu to su: jednostavno podizanje svesti, prenos uticaja, prenos imidža, pripadanje, podrazumevana veličina, podrazumevano podržavanje, i reciprocitet.

Usponzorstvu se uzima u obzir način na koji povezivanje brenda sa nekim događajem ili sportistom može uticati na potrošače. Ovi mehanizmi, njihove psihološke osnove, i dublje proučavanje načina na koji svaki od njih utiče na sponzorstvo, donosi efikasnije rezultate i okvir za proučavanje publike, događaja, sportista i drugih faktora (Schwarz i Hunter, 2008). Ovaj okvir pomaže da se osvetli rastući promotivni instrument - sponzorstvo sportista i događaja, u svetlu globalnih tendencija koje postoje u svetu. Ljudi se u sportu često posmatraju kao element marketing miksa ipostaju brend koji se koristi kao podrška ostalim brendovima. Korišćenje marke je povezano sa identifikacijom dodatne vrednosti sa proizvodom i uslugom. Proizvod je skup opipljivih i neopipljivih atributa koji se kreira da zadovolji neku korisnu i funkcionalnu potrebu korisnika. Marka služi funkcionalnoj svrsi, ali svoju vrednost izvodi iz jedinstvenog balansa između funkcionalne i diferencirane koristi. Ljudski brendovi funkcionišu na identičan način kao brendovi proizvoda i usluga. Oni prenose vrednosti i percepcije koje imaju posebanefekat na određeno ciljno tržište. Pozicija brenda na tržištu je izgrađena od elemenata: domen, nasleđe, vrednost, osobina, ličnost i odraz brenda (Jobber, 2000, str. 152). Beech i Chadweek (2010, str. 351) definišu promociju upotrebom lika sportistana način kada firma pruža nekoj osobi finansijsku ili materijalnu korist, a za uzvrat od nje traži da koristi, promoviše ili daje podršku njihovim proizvodima. Unutar svakog modela sportista može biti pozicioniran kao proizvodni ekspert, i može biti predstavljen kao neko ko ima snažnu, dugoročnu vezu sa kompanijom (Ljubojević, 2001, str. 134-146). U najvećem broju slučajeva sport doprinosi visokom stepenu lojalnosti proizvodu, brendu ili timu (Smith i Stewart, 1972, str. 17). Promociju upotrebom lika sportista su stvorile kompanije zbog visokih troškova i rizika oglašavanja i sponzorstva kojima su bili izloženi, tražeći jednako efikasan a jeftiniji promotivni miks. Ali, iako se mogu ostvariti veće koristi od izlaganja sportista, rizik je i dalje visok zbog njihovog povređivanja, ispadanja iz kvalifikacija, doping afe-

ra, ili skandala jer su sportisti pod velikom presijom ostvarenja sportskog rezultata pre i posle održavanja takmičenja (Pitts i Stotlar, 1997; Daboll, 2011; Dugalić 2013).

Poznati sportisti imaju lične osobine i stavove kojima se javnost divi. Oni se koriste u svrhu promovisanja raznih proizvoda, jer sport pruža više načina komunikacije sa potrošačima. Sport ima tipičnu kombinaciju karakteristika koje stvaraju jedinstvene obrasce psiholoških reakcija, što iziskuje primenu sofisticirane strategije. Sportisti imaju jak uticaj na javnost iz više razloga koji ih izdvajaju od drugih poznatih ličnosti i profesija. Merenje kvaliteta sportistemarketing strategijom moguće je putem faktora: kvalitet performansi sportista, pobedničkog sindroma, ličnih karakteristika i medijske privlačnosti (Tomić, 2005, str. 113). U sportu a posebno u tenisu, postoji jasno vrednovanje, tj. rangiranje igrača (u vidu rang liste gde postoji prvi, drugi, treći..., gde svi teže ka prvoj poziciji), dok je u drugim profesijama „najbolji“ relativan pojam. Na primer, kod mladih ljudi koji se tek počinju baviti sportom, javlja se ljubav prema onima koji se izdvajaju od drugih (nalaze se na nekoj od prvih 5 pozicija). Kada najbolji teniser sveta promoviše određenu marku opreme, većina verovatno želi da je poseduje i tako oponaša svog idola. Iako se uticaj korišćenja sportista u vidu rasta prihoda ili prodaje teže meri, smatra se da sportisti imaju moć da poboljšaju imidž proizvoda. Ovaj uticaj se zato meri indirektno, uz pomoć nekih drugih srodnih mera. Markovitch i Golder (2008) su analizirali kretanje cena akcija i otkrili da novinska izdanja koja najavljuju ugovore o promociji i sponzorstvu koje sklapaju poznati sportisti sa kompanijama dovode do povećanja prihoda. Slavni sportisti pomažu pri izgradnji prepoznatljivog imidža kompanije i njenih proizvoda, čime povećavaju odziv gledalaca (Agraval i Kamakura, 1995). Kada postoji bliska veza između sportiste i proizvoda koji promoviše, odobravanje tog proizvoda od strane sportiste donosi dodatnu vrednost brendu, a može se stvoriti i emotivna veza koja ima veliki uticaj na stavove o kupovini. Prema Maričiću (2011, str. 424) „merenje stavova može da pomogne da se shvati koje su karakteristike novog koncepta proizvoda (ne)prihvatljive za potrošače, kao i koja je njihova percepcija prednosti i nedostataka konkurentskih alternativa”.

2. METODOLOGIJA ISTRAŽIVANJA

U radu je upotrebljeno višemetoda uz pomoć kojih se nastojala istražiti i objasniti veza koja postoji između

slavnih sportista i njihovih fanova, pre svega intervjuisanje putem ankete u elektronskoj formi. U cilju poređenja teorijskih izvora i rezultata koji su dostupni u naučnoj literaturi korišćeni su postojeći, sekundarni izvori, podaci i tekstovi sa sajtova, npr. *Forbes*, koji predstavlja jedan od vodećih izvora za pouzdane vesti iz sveta biznisa i finansijskih podataka. Osnovna tehnika istraživanja je anketiranje. Anketni upitnik „Promocija upotrebom lika sportista“ (2014) je postavljen na Internet lokaciji posredstvom *Google* servisa. Anketni upitnik je ispitanicima prosleđen putem društvene mreže *Facebook*, zbog čega najveći broj ispitanika čine mladi ljudi, učenici i studenti. Ovaj postupak kreiranja ankete, kao i proces dobijanja povratnih informacija na pregledan način, je vrlo jednostavan, čime je njihovo tumačenje olakšano. Nedostaci su što izbor uzorka nije slučajna, kao i veličina uzorka, pa su istraživanja ponovljena u kasnijem merenju pomoću štampanog upitnika (sa još 229 ispitanika). U toku obrade i analize popunjenih upitnika, izbačeni su neadekvatni i nepotpuni odgovori; dobijena je veličina validnog probnog uzorka od 85 ispitanika. Osnovne varijable su bile: pol, starost i radni status. Odgovori ispitanika su vrednovani uz pomoć: 1/ grafičke metode gde su ispitanici odgovarali markiranjem znaka + i – (da, ne); 2/ Likertove skale kod koje su verbalne kategorije prevedene po numeričkom intenzitetu od 1-5; i 3/ numeričke Terstonove skale stavova, sa stepenom odgovora od 1-10. Dobijeni podaci su interpretirani u vidu slika i tabela u delu rada koji sublimiše rezultate istraživanja.

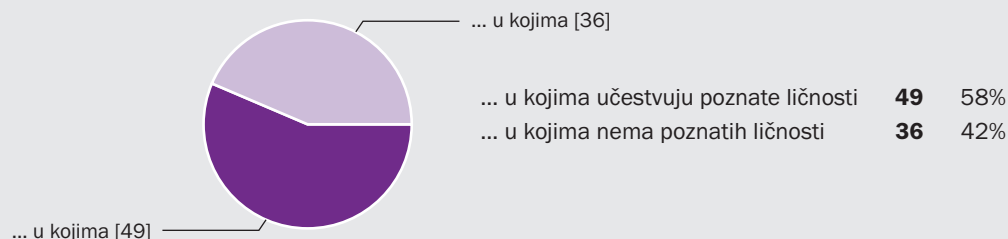
Proces istraživanja je imao faze: 1/ popunjavanje ankete od strane ispitanika; i 2/ obrada i analiza prikupljenih podataka. Obrada podataka i analiza je izvršena uz pomoć deskriptivne statistike, a rezultati istraživanja su prikazani tekstualno, grafički i tabelarno. U cilju ustanovljavanja uzročno posledičnih veza, podaci do kojih se došlo u istraživanju su interpretirani uz pomoć metode modelovanja za uočavanje sličnosti među pojavama (osobina sportista i uticaja na najširi auditorijum), opštih i posebnih metoda (analiza i sinteza). Istraživanjem uz pomoć poznate teniske ličnosti su dobijeni realni i aktuelni podaci vezani za bitne faktore promocije.

3. REZULTATI ISTRAŽIVANJA

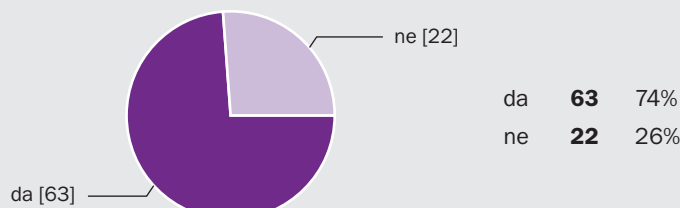
Tenis je sport koji ima mnogo uzbudljivih turnira, sezona igranja traje punih 11 meseci, pa su imena i slike najboljih tenisera jako zastupljeni u svim medijima. Cilj istraživanja je da se ustanovi u kojoj meri pozna-

SLIKA 1: Prisustvo poznate ličnosti u promociji (slike 1 – 8 su preuzete direktno iz Google servisa, iz pregleda odgovora ispitanika)

Više Vas privlače reklame



Da li Vam prisustvo poznate ličnosti u reklamama pomaže da prepoznate marku?



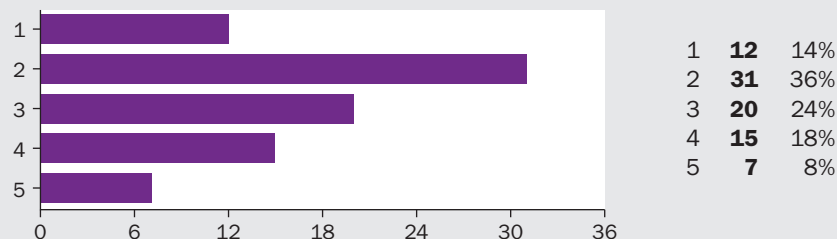
te teniske ličnosti mogu uticati na potrošače iz Srbije da se odluče na kupovinu proizvoda koje sportisti promovišu (da li mogu uticati na lojalnost potrošača prema određenom brendu ili proizvodu). Nisu postojali posebni uslovi za popunjavanje ankete: ispitane su osobe oba pola (45 žena i 40 muškaraca), svih starosnih grupa i profesija. Najviše je bilo osoba starosti 22-28 godina (44). Ostatak su činili ispitanici: 2 starosti manje od 15, 6 od 15-21, po 7 od 36-42 i više od 42, i 19 od 29-35 godina. Prema radnom statusu je najviše bilo neaktivnih - 37 (kao što su studenti, učenici, domaćice, penzioneri), zatim 30 zaposlenih i 18 nezaposlenih ispitanika. Najveći broj pitanja u anketnom upitniku postavljen je tako da podrazumeva upotrebu Likertove skale (odgovori od 1-5), gde je najmanji broj neslaganje sa izjavom, a najveći potpuno slaganje (moguće je dati bilo koju ocenu između u zavisnosti od stepena slaganja). Prvo pitanje se odnosilo na delatnost (sport, zabava/mediji, moda i kultura) kojoj pripada poznata ličnost i koliko to utiče na odluku o

kupovini. Iz odgovora ispitanika vidljivo je da najviše utiče sport (imao je najveći broj ocena 4 i 5, a zatim slede zabava/mediji i kultura). Po broju ocena 1 prva je na spisku moda što znači da poznate ličnosti iz te delatnosti najmanje utiču na odluku o kupovini ispitanika iz uzorka. Kada je u pitanju učešće poznatih ličnosti u promociji, može se zaključiti iz slike br. 1 da 58% ispitanika više privlači promocija u kojoj ima poznatih ličnosti, a većina njih (74%), se slaže da prisustvo poznate ličnosti u promociji pomaže pri prepoznavanju određene marke.

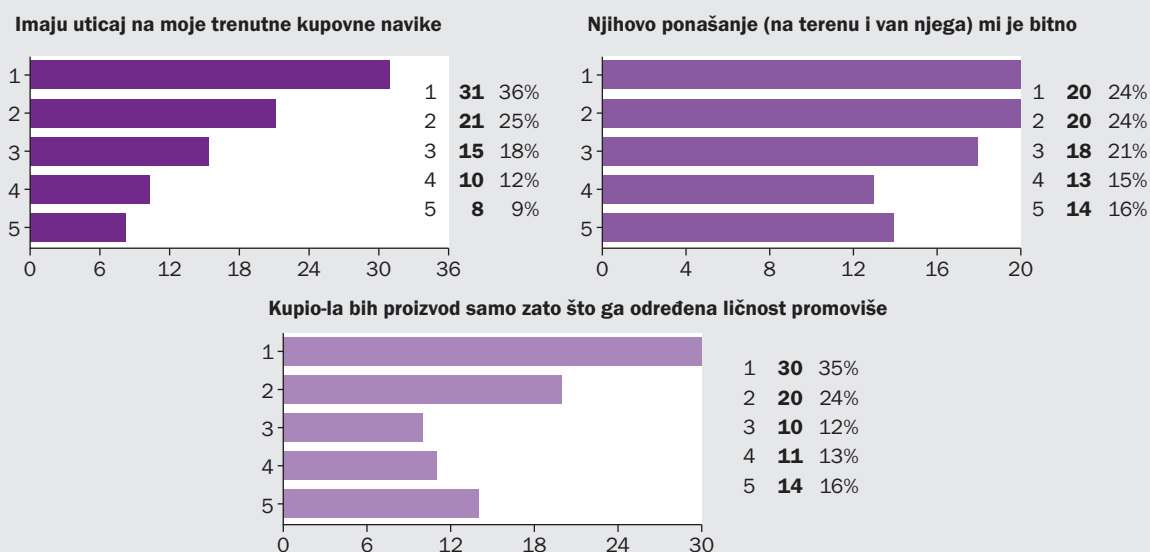
Sledi pitanje: "Koliko generalno poznate ličnosti utiču na odluku o kupovini nekog proizvoda?" a zatim pitanja vezana za jačinu veze uticaja teniskih ličnosti. Odgovori su očekivano slični – poznati ne utiču mnogo na tu odluku, kako pokazuje slika 2.

Na pitanje u čemu najviše uživaju u tenisu, većina ispitanika izjavljuje da je to gledanje mečeva i praćenje određenog tenisera (ti odgovori su imali najviše ocena 4 i 5). Čak 66 ispitanika uživa u gledanju tenisa,

SLIKA 2: Koliko uticaja na odluku ispitanika o kupovini imaju poznate ličnosti



SLIKA 3. Uticaj teniskih ličnosti na odluku o kupovini



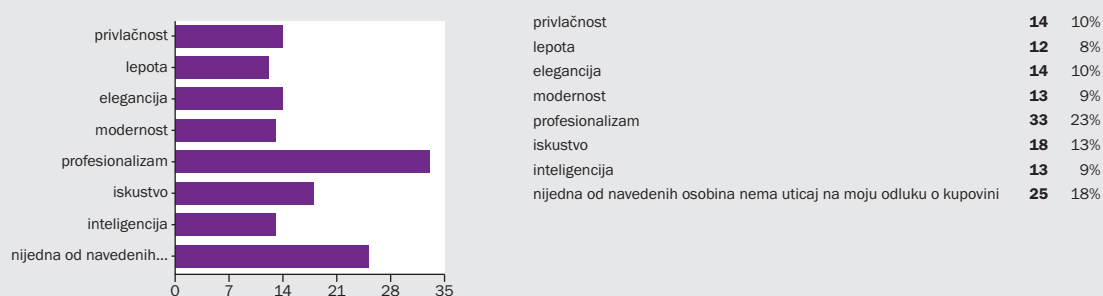
a 47 u praćenju određenog tenisera. Njih 29 uživa u igranju tenisa, a 16 u kopiranju određenog stila igre. Svega 12 ispitanika voli da oponaša određenu ličnost (njihov stil oblačenja i sl.). Ispitanicima su zatim po-

stavljena pitanja (slika br. 3) vezana za uticaj teniskih ličnosti: koliko oni utiču na odluku o kupovini, koliko je ispitanicima njihovo ponašanje (na terenu i van nje-

SLIKA 4: Pitanja vezana za određenu tenisku ličnost



SLIKA 5. Dve osobine koje imaju najveći uticaj na odluku ispitanika da kupe određeni proizvod



ga) bitno i da li bi kupili neki proizvod samo zato što ga neka teniska ličnost promoviše:

Kao i kod prethodnog pitanja, koje se odnosi generalno na poznate ličnosti, i ovde se zaključuje da teniske ličnosti ne utiču mnogo na kupovne navike. Određen broj ispitanika (16%) je ipak odgovorio da bi kupili proizvod samo zato što ga određena teniska ličnost promoviše, a oko 30% njih izjavili su da im je bitno ponašanje tenisera na terenu i van njega. Sledeći niz pitanja podrazumeva da ispitanik ima na umu određenu tenisku ličnost, a ocenjivana su upotrebom 5-stepene Likertove skale kako pokazuje slika 4. Odgovori ispitanika vezani za navedene osobine ličnosti koju su imali na umu pri popunjavanju upitnika su uglavnom pozitivni (mereno dodeljenom ocenom 4 i 5). Ali čak ni u slučaju kada bi ta ličnost o kojoj subjektivno imaju lepo mišljenje promovisala proizvod, veliki broj njih (41%), se ne bi lakše odlučili na kupovinu tog proizvoda.

Sledeći set izjava i ocena odnosi se na neke lične fizičke i mentalne osobine izabranih tenisera upotrebom Terstonove skale (ocenama 1-10), a nakon toga je ispitanik izdvojio 2 koje najviše utiču (ukoliko utiču) na odluku o kupovini. Njih 25 (18%), je odgovorilo da nijedna od osobina ne utiče na odluku (slika br.5). Utvrđeno je da iskusne tenisere (R. Federer, N. Đoković, R. Nadal, M. Šarapova, S. Vilijsams) karakterišu

profesionalizam i iskustvo na terenu i van njega (23% i 18%), zbog kojih im ispitanici veruju, naklonjeni su im, i posledično oni prednjače po sumi novca zarađenog od promocije.

Ispitanicima je zatim postavljeno pitanje o lojalnost (koliko činjenica da omiljeni teniser promoviše proizvod utiče na odluku da osoba duži vremenski period koristi isti proizvod, tj. da ga ne zameni drugim). Skoro 1/2 ispitanika odgovorila je da to uopšte ne utiče na lojalnost (slika 6), dok je 22% odgovorilo da veoma utiče (koliko ih je dalo ocenu 5).

Na kraju su ispitanici upisivali ime tenisera kojeg su imali na umu dok su davali izjave. Očekivano, najveći broj se odlučio za N. Đokovića. Pomenuto je ukupno 14 različitih tenisera. Broj pojavljivanja svakog od njih je dat je u tabeli 1, i pod uticajem je nacionalne pripadnosti ispitanika, kako pokazuje slika br. 7.

U tabeli 2 je prikazan spisak najplaćenijih teniskih igrača u 2015.g., kada su u pitanju teniski turniri i promocija proizvoda (količina novca zarađenog od promocije - *endorsement earnings*), koja pokazuje da teniseri višestruko manje novca zarade od turnira na kojima učestvuju, nego od promocije. Na listi prednjači R. Federer koji je u vrhu tenisa već deceniju; zgodan je, graciozan, evropljanin, nije kontroverzan, perfektно govori engleski i još nekoliko jezika. Mnogi od njegovih ugovora traju koliko i njegova karijera

SLIKA 6. Uticaj omiljenog tenisera/teniserke na lojalnost

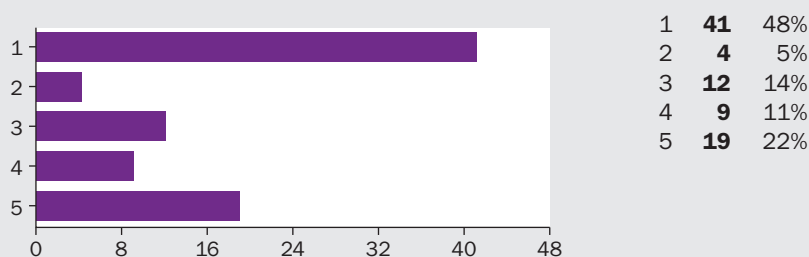


TABELA 1. Teniseri i teniserke – učestalost pojavljivanja u anketi

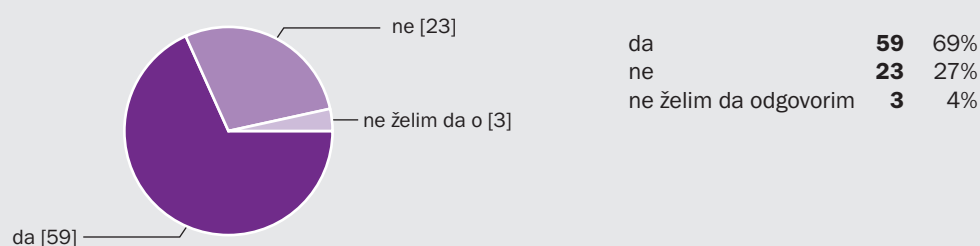
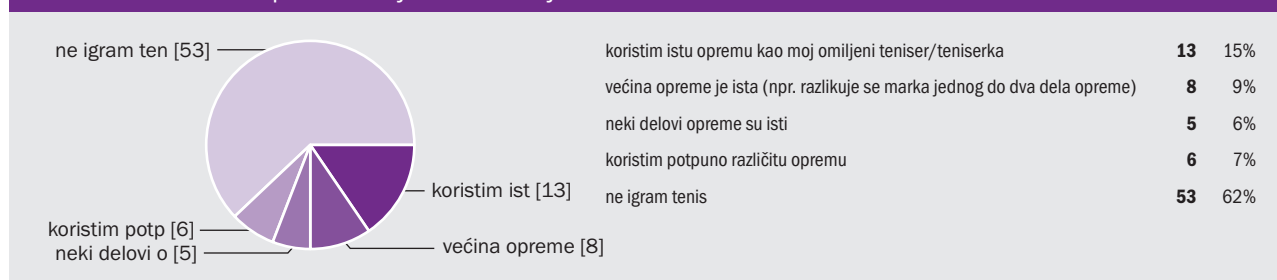
Ime i prezime	Broj pojavljivanja
1. Novak Đoković	34
2. Ana Ivanović	13
3. Rafael Nadal	9
4. Rodžer Federer	6
5. Marija Šarapova	5
6. Janko Tipsarević	3
7. Jelena Janković	3
8. Endi Marej	3
9. Serena Vilijsams	3
10. Viktor Troicki	2
11. Ana Kurnjikova	1
12. Huan Martin del Potro	1
13. Nenad Zimonjić	1
14. Mario Aničić	1

i znak su velike posvećenost tih kompanija s obzirom na to da je ovo era sportista koji sramote sponzore ispadima u tabloidima ili imaju problema sa policijom. Federer osim novca zarađenog od osvojenih turnira, zarađuje dodatnih 58 mil. \$ od promocije, a njegova saradnja sa Nike-om je najveća u istoriji sporta (ova kompanija mu za promociju plaća preko 10 mil. \$ godišnje (Badenhausen, 2015)). Ostali veći Federerovi promotivni ugovori su s kompanijama: Rolex, Credit Suisse, Mercedes-Benz, Wilson, Lindt, Jura, Moët & Chandon, National Suisse, NetJets i Sunrise.

TABELA 2. Najviše plaćeni teniseri u svetu, u mil. \$ (Badenhausen, 2015)

Teniser	Turniri/ Promocija	Tviter pratioci
1. R. Federer	9/58	3,214,755
2. N. Đoković	17.2/31	4.466.263
3. R. Nadal	4.5/28	8.265.829
4. M.Šarapova	6.7/23	1.730.119
5. S. Vilijsams	11.6 / 13	4.853.967
6. Li Na	5.6 / 18	-
7. E. Marej	6.3 / 16	3.198.511
8. K. Nišikori	4.5 / 15	310.356
9. K. Voznjacki	3.6 / 11	991.509
10. V. Azarenka	6.7 / 9	-
11. S. Vavrinka	11.1 (total)	-
12. A. Ivanović	8.3 (total)	-

Samo 5-ogodišnji ugovor koji je potpisao s kompanijom *Moët & Chandon* vredi više od 30 mil. \$. To je dokaz da Federer, iako pri kraju karijere (sa stanovišta godina), i dalje ima jak uticaj na javnost i kompanije ga žele za promovisanje svojih proizvoda. Kada je E. Marej nakon 77 godina osvojio Wimbledon za V. Britaniju, objavljen je članak "*Murray's Wimbledon Win Could Mean \$74 Million in Endorsements*" (Rossingh, 2013), alise on u prikazanoj tabeli nalazi na 7. mestu (sa zaradom od tek 16 mil. \$). Četvrta na listi u tabeli je M. Šarapova; jedina žena pozicionirana među 50 najplaćenijih sportista sveta (29. mesto). Njena zarada

SLIKA 7: Identičnost nacionalnosti tenisera i ispitanika**SLIKA 8:** Sličnost sa opremom koju koristi omiljeni teniser

je 29,7 mil. \$, i najvećim delom potiče od Nike, a zatim od njene linije teniske opreme i obuće.

Na pitanje da li je nacionalnost izabranog tenisera ista kao i nacionalnost ispitanika (slika 7), nije bilo obavezno odgovoriti (postojala je opcija: ne želim da odgovorim), ali je ipak 69% ispitanika odgovorilo potvrdno.

Ispitanici (onaj deo ispitanika koji igra tenis: rekreativno, profesionalno ili amaterski) su još odgovarali na pitanja koja se tiču opreme (koliko je oprema koju koriste slična opremi njihovih omiljenih tenisera). Čak 62% ispitanika ne igra tenis, a oni koji su aktivni najvećim delom koriste istu opremu kao njihov omiljeni teniser (slika 8).

Iz ovoga se zaključuje da teniseri i teniserke imaju uticaj na izbor opreme onih koji se bave tenisom. Iako samo 38% ispitanika igra tenis, iz rezultata se jasno vidi da većina njih koristi istu opremu kao omiljeni igrač. Na kraju su ispitanici imali mogućnost da upišu komentare, kao npr. postoji li neki razlog zbog kojeg izabrani teniser utiče na to da se odluče na kupovinu proizvoda. Svega nekoliko ispitanika je popunilo ovo polje. Za N. Đokovića su npr. upisani komentari: pošten je i dobar čovek i kad igra na turniru i u životu, voleo bih da sam kao on; N. Đoković – zbog njegovog humanitarnog rada; za R. Nadala: Rafa je energičan i eksploziv na terenu; za E. Mareja: požrtvovan je kad igra i ne predaje se; za S. Vilijams: jaka je, uporna i nikada ne odustaje.

4. DISKUSIJA

Analiza podataka uz pomoć deskriptivne statistike je dala potpuniji uvid u privrženost ispitanika sportu i slavnim sportistima, koja je pod značajnim uticajem karakternih osobina sportista. Više od 1/2 ispitanika (58%) preferišu promociju u kojoj učestvuju slavne ličnosti, i smatraju da im one pomažu prepoznati brend (74%). Za poznati brend, naročito proizvođači sportske opreme, plaćaju veoma velike sume novca sportistima kako bi oni i timovi koji stoje iza njih nosili određenu odeću, obuću i koristili određene rekvizite, vozili određenu marku automobila, itd. Promocija proizvoda i usluga od strane poznatih sportista (*celebrity endorsement*) od 1990.g. je postala predmet velikog interesovanja mnogih multinacionalnih kompanija (Gašović, 2004, Mitrović, 2010, Dugalić, 2012). Značaj popularnosti teniskih ličnosti omogućavaju da se marketinške strategije usmere u tom pravcu, razvijaju, i teže ka stvaranju profita bez kojeg profesionalni sport nadanašnjem visokokonkurentnom tržištu ne bi

mogao opstati. Ovo korespondira s nalazima Katyal-a (2013) da se budući sponzori lakše odlučuju da stupe u poslovnu saradnju sa sportistima koji imaju prepoznatljivu pozitivnu reputaciju i imidž, tj. sa onima koji su u javnosti stvorili pozitivnu sliku o sebi, iako je ova promocija izložena visokom riziku (Daboll, 2011).

Nadalje, iz rezultata istraživanja i sprovedene ankete se može zaključiti da je najveći broj tenisera na koje su ispitanici pomišljali iz Srbije (igra za Srbiju), i to 66%. Očekivano prednjači N. Đoković (s čak 40% odgovora), a odmah za njim je A. Ivanović (s 15% odgovora). Iako skoro 1/2 ispitanika više privlači promocija u kojoj nema poznatih ličnosti, najveći deo se složio s tim da lakše prepoznaju marku proizvoda kada ga oglašava poznata ličnost. Takođe, skoro 1/4 ispitanika je odgovorila da činjenica da njihov omiljeni teniser promoviše određeni proizvod utiče na to da ostanu lojalni tom proizvodu (proizvođaču). Isto tako, skoro 1/4 ispitanika bi kupila neki proizvod samo zato što ga određena teniska ličnost promoviše, što navodi na zaključak da je potrošačima u značajnoj meri bitno ko promoviše proizvod. Ovaj uticaj na stavove korespondira sa Živković (2011, str. 205) da se specifična marketing sredstva mogu koristiti za jačanje povezanosti sa potrošačima i povećanje njihovog zadovoljstva.

Kada su u pitanju lične osobine sportista koje utiču na odluku o kupovini, ispitanici najčešće ističu profesionalizam i iskustvo. Odmah zatim slede elegancija i privlačnost, dok je 18% ispitanika odgovorilo da nijedna od ponuđenih osobina ne utiče na njihovu odluku o kupovini. Bilo je i interesantnih tekstualnih odgovora na pitanje šta utiče na to da se osoba odluči na kupovinu proizvoda kao što su: poštenje, humanitarni rad, energičnost i eksplozivnost na terenu, upornost, snaga i požrtvovanje. Iako su u Srbiji sportovi košarka i fudbal popularni u svim starosnim grupama, značaj ostalih sportova, pre svega tenisa raste. Tokom vremena ovi sportovi beleže povećanje ljudi koji tim sportom počinju da se bave ili ga prate. Po tome koje su tenisere ispitanici imali na umu dok su odgovarali na neka pitanja zaključuje se da zvučna (popularna) imena, uglavnom sportisti iz teniskog vrha, N. Đoković i A. Ivanović imaju mogućnost da u velikoj meri utiču na stavove mladih potrošača, što se može koristiti za rano oblikovanje stavova i ukusa ciljanog tržišta. Sport kao što je tenis, kako pokazuju istraživanja, otvara razne mogućnosti u oblasti marketinga, jer dopire do različitih ciljnih grupa na mnoge načine: specijalizovanim sportskim časopisima, putem televizije ili promotivnim kampanjama u časopisima koje čita šira javnost. Iz toga sledi zaključak da je ispitanicima generalno bitno ponašanje tenisera na terenu

(profesionalizam, upornost, energičnost), i van njega (humanitarni rad), ali da na odluke o kupovini deluju i drugi faktori koje je neophodno dodatno istražiti.

ZAKLJUČAK

Iz svega izloženog može se zaključiti da postoji uzročno posledična veza između popularnosti sportista i stavova ispitanika: 1/ da sportske ličnosti mogu biti veoma efikasan instrument za formiranje i promenu stavova i kupovnih navika potrošača; i 2/ da se ljudi često identifikuju sa vrhunskim sportistima i žele da izgledaju ili da se ponašaju kao oni. Ovo se temelji na činjenici da 58% ispitanika preferiše promociju u kojoj učestvuju slavne ličnosti, kao i u tome da im one pomažu prepoznati brend (74%). Ipak je manje od 10% ispitanika tvrdnji da bi se odlučilo na kupovinu proizvoda ili duže vreme koristilo proizvod pod uticajem poznatog tenisera, dodelilo najvišu ocenu. Ako kompanije ipak žele efikasno ubeđivanje ciljne grupe, neophodno je izabrati sportistu s kojim se grupa identifikuje. U slučaju većine vrhunskih sportista, ciljna grupa verovatno već poseduje određeni nivo

identifikacije sa njima. Takvo poistovećivanje je rezultat toga za koji tim, odnosno za koju državu određeni sportista igra i koju državu predstavlja (nacionalna opredeljenost). Drugi deo tog poistovećivanja može biti rezultat određenih aspekata ponašanja poznatog sportiste ili njegovih ličnih osobina, tj. načina na koji ga javnost vidi (profesionalizam i iskustvo).

Iz odgovora ispitanika se pretpostavlja da strategija promocije angažovanjem slavnih sportista u budućnosti može biti motivisana i nekim drugim faktorima, npr. humanitarnim radom, pitanjem životne sredine i sl. Kako je za izvođenje validnijih zaključaka potrebno uključiti veći uzorak preporučuje se upotrebom identičnog upitnika ponoviti merenje i pokušati identifikovati nove faktore koji mogu uticati na uspostavljanje ili jačanje veze između sportiste, proizvoda i publike (potrošača). U vezi s tim treba istražiti kako se promotivne poruke mogu koristiti za jačanje tih veza. Ono što je sigurno je da će se angažovanje poznatih sportista u promociji proizvoda iako sobom nosi izvesne rizike sigurno nastaviti, te da će u budućnosti podstaći nova istraživanja vezana za ocenu ukupne efikasnosti ove vrste promocije.

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Abstract:

The Sport Celebrity Endorsement in Promotion of Products and Services

Sretenka Dugalić, Jovana Ivić

Celebrity endorsement which includes promotion with engagement of famous athlete is different from other promotional campaigns; the only similarity is in a strong, effective way that defines purchase. The purpose of this paper is to explain how achievements in sports (tennis) influence the formation of opinions, attitudes, and habits of individuals. The work is of theoretical and empirical character and consists of three parts. The first part explains theoretical aspects; and in the second part of the methodology necessary for process analysis and obtaining research results that may have practical application in marketing through the transformation of sports results in tangible value. The third part sublimated research results as

the basis for discussions and presentation of the conclusions that have been reached in the study. Case studies refer to sports, athletes, tennis players, as well as the creators of the sports experience, and their impact on the target groups that can be commercially exploited. In particular, it explored the impact of individual characteristics of Fame players via variable: experience, intelligence, professionalism and other personal qualities, as well as engagement and activities outside the scope of professional tennis.

Keywords: sports marketing, celebrity endorsement, tennis

Kontakt:

Sretenka Dugalić, Fakultet za fizičku kulturu i menadžment u sportu, Univerzitet Singidunum, Danijelova 32, Visoka sportska i zdravstvena škola, Beograd, T. Jovanovića 9-11, sdugalic@singidunum.ac.rs

Jovana Ivić, University of Wisconsin, Health, Exercise Science and Sport Management, Parkside, USA jj.ivic11@gmail.com

Ključne determinante potrošačkog etnocentrizma u Bosni i Hercegovini

Amela Bešlagić

Sažetak: Područje istraživanja odnosi se na ponašanje potrošača i efekte uticaja potrošačkog etnocentrizma na nacionalnu ekonomiju. Stoga je predmet istraživanja u radu etnocentrizam potrošača kao odnos potrošača prema kupovini i potrošnji domaćih proizvoda. Cilj rada je identifikacija ključnih determinanti fenomena potrošačkog etnocentrizma, kako bi se objasnile navike potrošača u kupovini i potrošnji domaćih proizvoda. Empirijskim istraživanjem utvrđene su ključne determinante koje utiču na stepen potrošačkog etnocentrizma kod građana Bosne i Hercegovine. Korišten je anketni upitnik kao obrazac za prikupljanje podataka i Cronbach alfa koeficijent za merenje pouzdanosti skale potrošačkog etnocentrizma, kao i analiza varijanse. Prikupljeni podaci obrađeni su uz pomoć statističkog softvera SPSS – a. Rezultati istraživanja su potvrdili skorije nalaze provedene na području Bosne i Hercegovine iz ove oblasti. Utvrđeno je da su bosanskohercegovački potrošači etnocentrični i da njihovu sklonost ka kupovini domaćih proizvoda određuju promotivne aktivnosti, učestalost kupovine roba široke potrošnje, status u domaćinstvu, broj članova domaćinstva, prosečna mesečna primanja domaćinstva, nivo obrazovanja i radni status nosioca domaćinstva.

Ključne riječi: potrošački etnocentrizam, navike potrošača, Bosna i Hercegovina.

JEL klasifikacija: M39

1. UVOD

Razumevanje ponašanja potrošača je postao ključ ka uspešnom marketingu i marketing istraživanju, te se dugo vremena tragalo za rešavanjem složenih obrazaca ponašanja (Dmitrović & Vida, 2009, str. 25). Evolutivni put etnocentričnog ponašanja započinje pojavom antropologije kao naučne discipline, odnosno izvedenica je grane antropologije, tzv. kulturne antropologije (Rahman, Morshed & Hossan, 2011, str. 4).

U kontekstu etnocentrizma uočena su dva pristupa. Opšti pristup etnocentrizmu ne vezuje ovaj fenomen isključivo za ponašanje potrošača, nego ga posmatra kao multidisciplinarni fenomen koji crpi svoje korene iz grana nauke kao što su: antropologija, psihologija, sociologija, medicina i ekonomija. Drugi pristup etnocentrizmu, vezuje se za potrošača i njegovo ponašanje u procesu kupovine, pa je istraživanje etnocentričnih tendencija postao neizostavan dio istraživanja ponašanja potrošača u procesu kupovine.

Literatura o etnocentričnom ponašanju govori kao o univerzalnom obrascu stavova i ponašanja. U sociološkom kontekstu, etnocentrizam predstavlja sagledavanje vlastite grupe ljudi, to jest one grupe kojoj pripadamo, kao superiornije u odnosu na druge grupe ljudi. Ti stavovi, također, uključuju sagledavanje vlastitih vrednosti kao univerzalnih. Naime, ponašanje koje je povezano sa etnocentrizmom karakterišu čvrsti odnosi sa članovima svoje grupe, dok s druge strane predstavlja odsustvo istih sa članovima ostalih grupa, čije se vrednosti razlikuju od onih vlastitih (Axelrod & Hammond, 2000, str. 2).

S obzirom na specifičnosti geografskih tržišta, intenzitet potrošačkog etnocentrizma oscilira po pojedinim područjima, kao i faktori koji na njega utiču, što je posledica različite istorije i kulture naroda, ekonomskog stanja jedne zemlje, navika u kupovini i potrošnji, barijera za kupovinu domaćih proizvoda i niza drugih faktora.

Shimp i Sharma (1987) su razvili instrument za merenje stepena etnocentričnih tendencija, koji su nazvali skalom potrošačkog etnocentrizma.

2. TEORIJSKI OKVIR ISTRAŽIVANJA

Postoje različita gledišta na fenomen potrošačkog etnocentrizma. Zbog povećane globalizacije potrošači nisu ograničeni samo na proizvode domaćeg porijekla, nego i na one iz inostranstva (Khan, 2012, str. 1). Candan, Aydin i Yamamoto (2008) definišu etnocentrizam kao isticanje vlastite rase ili etničke grupe kao superiorne gdje se pojam *etnički* odnosi na kulturno nasleđe, a *centrizam* na centralnu tačku gledišta. Pojam potrošačkog etnocentrizma mogao bi objasniti razloge zašto neki potrošači imaju negativne stavove prema stranim proizvodima, te može opravdati potrošačevu pristranost prema kupovini domaćih naspram uvoznih proizvoda. U poslednjih dvadeset godina, pojam etnocentrizma se proširio i na ponašanje potrošača (Al Ganideh & Al Taei, 2012, str. 49).

Prema Saffu i Walker (2005) potrošački etnocentrizam u svojoj osnovi omogućava razumevanje sklonosti, preferencija i stavova potrošača prema uvoznim proizvodima kao preduslov uspešnom ulasku na inostrano tržište. Nadalje, Renko, Crnjak Karanović i Matić (2012) definišu potrošački etnocentrizam kao razumevanje ponašanja potrošača u procesu kupovine, kako bi se odredile njegove kupovne namere.

Dakle, etnocentrizam se pojavljuje kao težnja da se domaći proizvodi kupuju pre nego strani. Etnocentrični potrošači na taj način žele da doprinesu ekonomskom blagostanju, a samim tim i opštem političkom, društvenom i ekonomskom razvoju zemlje. Takvim potrošačima nisu potrebne neke naročite mere države da bi se na ovaj način ponašali. U isto vreme značajan broj potrošača preferira strane proizvode, naročito poznate svetske brendove. Nadalje, navodi se da se etnocentrične tendencije razvijaju u društvenom kontekstu, te da je glavno polazište porodica, ali i lideri mišljenja, referentne grupe, masovni mediji i tako dalje (Veljković, 2009, str. 98).

Fenomen potrošačkog etnocentrizma daje objašnjenje zašto potrošači biraju domaće u odnosu na strane proizvode, a, također, pomaže da identifikuje koji faktori imaju značajan uticaj na intenzitet etnocentričnih tendencija kod potrošača. Najznačajniji faktori koji determinišu potrošački etnocentrizam su ekonomski, politički, demografski i socio – psihološki faktori (Shankarmahesh, 2006, str. 149). Također je značajna uloga države kao faktora jačanja potrošačkog etnocentrizma i navika potrošača u kupovini i potrošnji.

U ekonomske faktore potrošačkog etnocentrizma se, prema Siamagki (2009), ubrajaju pojave poput recesije, visoke stope nezaposlenosti, te brzih tehnoloških

kih i organizacionih promena koje jačaju etnocentrične tendencije kod potrošača.

Nadalje, u pogledu političkih faktora koji određuju potrošački etnocentrizam, Rosenblatt je apostrofirao političku propagandu. Pored toga, promocija vlade, politička istorija različitih zemalja, također, determinišu opredjeljenje potrošača u pogledu etnocentrizma (Shankarmahesh, 2006, str. 164). Također, Alsughayir (2013) ne zaobilazi političko okruženje kao determinantu etnocentrizma potrošača. On smatra da događaji kao, na primer, napad na World Trade Center u New Yorku 11. septembra 2001. godine, utiču na mogućnost da vlada SAD – a, koristi isti kao deo svoje propagande, s ciljem jačanja etnocentričnih tendencija stanovnika Sedinjenih Američkih Država.

Demografska obeležja potrošača predstavljaju vrlo bitan faktor kod istraživanja potrošačkog etnocentrizma. Uglavnom su to spol, dob, status u domaćinstvu, broj članova domaćinstva, prosečna mesečna primanja, nivo obrazovanja, mesto stanovanja, etnička pripadnost potrošača, kao i njihov radni i bračni status čiji se uticaj na potrošački etnocentrizam u skorašnjim studijama na području Bosne i Hercegovine nije izučavao.

Prilikom izučavanja socio – psiholoških faktora polazi se od kulturne otvorenosti kao determinante potrošačkog etnocentrizma koja određuje spremnost ljudi da međudeluju sa ljudima iz drugih kultura, te da s njima razmenjuju svoja iskustva. Sledeći važan faktor koji treba istaknuti jeste patriotizam koji podrazumeva ljubav ili privrženost prema domovini, a u pozitivnoj je korelaciji sa potrošačkim etnocentrizmom. Pored toga, u okviru socio – psiholoških faktora u literaturi se navode i konzervatizam, kolektivism, animozitet, materijalizam i dogmatizam (Shankarmahesh, 2006, str. 161 – 163).

Što se tiče navika u kupovini i potrošnji kao determinanti potrošačkog etnocentrizma apostrofiraju se učestalost odlazaka u kupovinu, oglašavanje, lojalnost proizvodima domaćeg porekla, mesto obavljanja kupovine, obraćanje pažnje na poreklo proizvoda i tako dalje. Renko, Crnjak - Karanović i Matić (2012) su istraživali uticaj potrošačkog etnocentrizma na kupovne navike, te smatraju da se merenjem etnocentričnih tendencija potrošača mogu stvoriti baze podataka koje će biti inkorporirane u strategiju razvoja preduzeća. Nešto kasnije, Bhuian (2013) je došao do spoznaje da etnocentrične tendencije značajno determinišu navike potrošača u potrošnji, odnosno da mogu postati dominantne prilikom donošenja odluke o kupovini proizvoda. Stoga, prethodno navedeno može postati izazov za proces globalizacije koji sva

tržišta okreće ka jednoj velikoj svetskoj pozornici. Iz tog razloga postoji potreba da se potrošački etnocentrizam izučava na svakom pojedinačnom tržištu.

Brz proces integracije zemalja u Europsku Uniju i ukidanje carinskih barijera ima za posledicu rast slobodne trgovine između zemalja i širok protok robe, te veliku ponudu. Uloga državnih institucija kao faktora jačanja potrošačkog etnocentrizma se ogleda u stvaranju necarinskih barijera, koje stimulišu kupovinu domaćih proizvoda.

John i Brady (2009) su u svom radu istraživali potrošački etnocentrizam na području Mozambika, sa naglaskom na ulogu vlade u jačanju domaće proizvodnje s ciljem smanjivanja uvoza. Naime, vlada Mozambika je pokrenula 2006. godine kampanju „Made in Mozambique“ kako bi ojačala domaću proizvodnju. Navedena kampanja pokrenuta je u Mozambiku na osnovu odgovarajućeg programa i propisa u 2006. godini. Ideja kampanje bila je da se dodeli oznaka „Made in Mozambique“ svim proizvodima, uslugama i markama koje su proizvedene na području Mozambika i to u skladu sa strogim standardima kvaliteta i društvenom odgovornošću. Oznaka ima za cilj da signalizira nacionalno poreklo proizvoda ili usluge, što ih čini privlačnijim za lokalne potrošače.

Specifičnosti potrošačkog etnocentrizma se ogledaju i sa aspekta merenja etnocentričnih tendencija potrošača. Prema Teo, Mohamad i Ramayah (2011) instrument za merenje predmetnog fenomena je, prvobitno, služio kako bi merio sklonost američkih potrošača ka kupovini stranih proizvoda, te se smatralo da je skala za mjerenje potrošačkog etnocentrizma pokazatelj verovanja potrošača, njegovih navika u kupovini, stavova i izbora. Iako su se nastojale uvesti brojne druge mere za ocenu etnocentrizma potrošača, kroz dugi niz godina se, ipak, zadržala pomenuta skala. Naime, ona je prepoznatljiva po svom visokom stepenu valjanosti, te se danas koristi u brojnim studijama širom sveta. Empirijski je dokazano da je ona

jednodimenzionalna, što znači da jedan faktor nosi svih 17 tvrdnji od kojih je sastavljena CET skala. Neki su autori svojim studijama nastojali opovrgnuti jednodimenzionalnost CET skale. Međutim, kao što su prvobitno Shimp i Sharma predložili, zadržana je njena jednodimenzionalnost umjesto dvodimenzionalnog konstrukta.

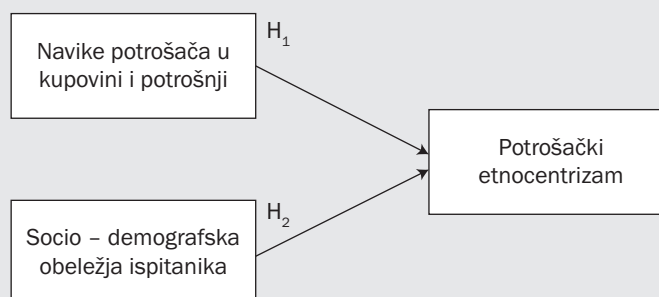
Navedenim instrumentom se meri intenzitet potrošačkog etnocentrizma u kontekstu zabrane ili ograničavanja uvoza stranih proizvoda, u pogledu trgovanja sa drugim zemljama, svesti potrošača o jačanju domaće zaposlenosti, intenziteta potrošačkog etnocentrizma sa aspekta barijera za kupovinu domaćih proizvoda, stavova o oporezivanju stranih proizvoda, zatim stavovi o kupovini domaćih proizvoda umesto uvoznih, te stavovi o prednostima za privredni razvoj koje sa sobom nosi kupovina proizvoda domaćeg porekla.

U pogledu posledica potrošačkog etnocentrizma prema Shankarmaheshu (2006) kao primarna konsekvencija istaknut je negativan stav prema stranim proizvodima. Također se spominje percepcija vrednosti proizvoda, empatija, troškovi i odgovornost kao mogući posrednici između potrošačkog etnocentrizma i spremnosti potrošača da kupuju strane proizvode. Nadalje, kada je reč o posledicama potrošačkog etnocentrizma u pogledu troškova, potrebno je naglasiti da su potrošači spremni zanemariti visinu vlastitog izdatka kako bi kupili proizvod domaćeg porijekla. Što se tiče odgovornosti, dokazano je da sa padom percipirane vrednosti proizvoda, raste odgovornost i spremnost potrošača za kupovinom domaćih proizvoda.

S obzirom na teorijske spoznaje i dosadašnja istraživanja o potrošačkom etnocentrizmu moguće je postaviti istraživački model koji je bio temelj provedenog istraživanja.

Uzimajući u obzir predstavljeni model definisana je osnovna istraživačka hipoteza:

SLIKA 1. Istraživački model potrošačkog etnocentrizma



Izvor: Samostalan rad

H₀: Navike potrošača u kupovini i potrošnji i njihova socio – demografska obeležja determinišu stavove i ponašanje potrošača u Bosni i Hercegovini prema proizvodima domaćeg porekla, odnosno predstavlja ju ključne determinante potrošačkog etnocentrizma u Bosni i Hercegovini.

Pored osnovne istraživačke hipoteze, utvrđene su sledeće radne hipoteze:

H₁: Navike u kupovini i potrošnji su važan faktor opredeljenja potrošača u kontekstu potrošačkog etnocentrizma.

H₂: Socio – demografska obeležja ispitanika utiču na opredeljenje potrošača u pogledu etnocentrizma.

3. METODOLOGIJA ISTRAŽIVANJA

Vremenski obuhvat u kojem je istraživanje provedeno odnosilo se na period od 04.03.2014. – 25.05.2014. godine. S obzirom na postavljene hipoteze istraživanja, iskristalisale su se dve nezavisne varijable, a to su: socio – demografska obeležja ispitanika i navike u kupovini i potrošnji. Zavisnu varijablu predstavlja potrošački etnocentrizam.

Indikatori za merenje socio – demografskih obeležja, kao nezavisne varijable, su: spol, status u domaćinstvu, broj članova domaćinstva, nivo obrazovanja nosioca domaćinstva, prosečna mesečna primanja domaćinstva, bračni i radni status nosioca domaćinstva, etnička pripadnost domaćinstva i mesto stanovanja. Indikatori za merenje navika u kupovini i potrošnji su: učestalost odlazaka u kupovinu svakodnevni proizvoda, učestalost odlazaka u kupovinu roba široke potrošnje, mesto kupovine, uticaj oglašavanja na kupovinu proizvoda i obraćanje pažnje na porijeklo proizvoda.

Indikatori za merenje zavisne varijable, tj. potrošačkog etnocentrizma, su: stavovi ispitanika o domaćim proizvodima u odnosu na proizvode stranog porekla; stavovi ispitanika u pogledu ograničavanja uvoznih proizvoda; te svesnost ispitanika da potrošački etnocentrizam stimuliše domaću zaposlenost.

Istraživanje je obuhvatilo potrošače, odnosno domaćinstva sa područja Bosne i Hercegovine i to njih 400 koji su slučajnim odabirom činili uzorak. Stopa odgovora iznosila je 87,75%, to jest 351 domaćinstvo ispitano je telefonskim putem. Ostalih 12,25% je odbilo da bude ispitano ili je bilo nedostupno.

TABELA 1. Spol ispitanika

Spol	n=351	Procenat (%)
Muški spol	105	30
Ženski spol	246	70

Izvor: Vlastito istraživanje

Analizom podataka utvrđeno je da uzorak karakteriše veća zastupljenost ženskog spola nego muškog, što pokazuju podaci prikazani u tabeli 1.

TABELA 2. Status u domaćinstvu

Status u domaćinstvu	n=351	Procenat (%)
Nosioc domaćinstva/suprug	61	17
Nosioc domaćinstva/supruga	41	12
Suprug	13	4
Supruga	176	50
Kćerka	27	7
Sin	29	8
Ostalo – ženski spol	2	1
Ostalo – muški spol	2	1

Izvor: Vlastito istraživanje

U tabeli 2. je prikazan status ispitanika u domaćinstvu, te je evidentno da je dominantan status supruge i nosioca domaćinstva – supruge, dok je najmanje zastupljeno ispitanika u statusu snahe, tetke i oca nosioca domaćinstva, koji su svrstani u kategoriju „Ostalo – ženski spol“ i „Ostalo – muški spol“.

TABELA 3. Nivo obrazovanja nosioca domaćinstva

Nivo obrazovanja	n=351	Procenat (%)
Završena osnovna škola	75	21
Završena srednja škola	199	57
Viša stručna sprema	23	7
Visoka stručna sprema	50	14
Naučni stepen magistra i doktora nauka	4	1

Izvor: Vlastito istraživanje

U tabeli 3. prikazan je nivo obrazovanja nosioca domaćinstva. Utvrđeno je da kod nosilaca domaćinstva prevladava srednja stručna sprema, a zatim osnovno obrazovanje. Manju zastupljenost su pokazale visoka i viša stručna sprema, te naučni stepen magistra i doktora nauka.

TABELA 4. Broj članova domaćinstva

Broj članova domaćinstva	n=351	Procenat (%)
1	48	13
2	83	24
3	56	16
4	95	27
5	39	11
6	21	6
7	4	1
8	3	1
9	2	1

IZVOR: Vlastito istraživanje

Tabela 4. pokazuje broj članova domaćinstva, te se može konstatovati da su dva i četiri člana domaćinstva dominantna karakteristika uzorka. Najmanje je zastupljenon po sedam, osam i devet članova u domaćinstvu.

TABELA 5. Prosečna mesečna primanja domaćinstva

Prosečna mesečna primanja domaćinstva u (KM)	n=351	Procenat (%)
0-500	165	47
501-1000	100	28
1001-2000	58	17
2001-5000	26	7
5001 i više	2	1

IZVOR: Vlastito istraživanje

Što se prosečnih mesečnih primanja domaćinstva tiče, tabela 5. pokazuje da su najzastupljenija ona domaćinstva sa prosečnim mesečnim primanjima od 0 – 500 KM, te domaćinstva sa mesečnim primanjima od 501 – 1000 KM. Jako malo je onih domaćinstava koji mesečno u proseku prime 2001 – 5000 KM ili više.

TABELA 6. Bračni status nosioca domaćinstva

Bračni status	n=351	Procenat (%)
Udata/oženjen	267	76
Neudata/neoženjen	7	2
Razveden/a	13	4
Udovac/Udovica	64	18

IZVOR: Vlastito istraživanje

Bračni status nosioca domaćinstva kao socio – demografsko obilježje predstavljeno je u tabeli 6. Naime, može se uočiti da su najzastupljeniji bili nosioci domaćinstva koji su u braku ili, pak, udovice ili udovci,

dok su manje zastupljeni bili oni nosioci domaćinstva koji uopšte nisu u braku ili koji su razvedeni.

TABELA 7. Radni status nosioca domaćinstva

Radni status	n=351	Procenat (%)
Zaposlen/a u javnom sektoru	82	23
Zaposlen/a u privatnom sektoru	53	15
Nezaposlen/a	216	62

IZVOR: Vlastito istraživanje

Sa aspekta radnog statusa prevladava status nezaposlen/a, dok je manje zastupljeno zaposlenih nosilaca domaćinstva u privatnom sektoru što pokazuje tabela 7.

TABELA 8. Etnička pripadnost domaćinstva

Radni status	n=351	Procenat (%)
Bošnjak	168	48
Hrvat	52	15
Srbin	113	32
Mešovito	11	3
Neopredeljen	6	2
Ostali	1	1

IZVOR: Vlastito istraživanje

Tabela 8. prikazuje nacionalnu strukturu jedinica uzorka. Naime, dominantna je bošnjačka i srpska nacionalnost domaćinstava. Manje zastupljena je hrvatska nacionalnost, dok su najmanje zastupljena domaćinstva koja su mešovite nacionalnosti, neopredeljeni i oni koji spadaju u grupu „Ostali“.

TABELA 9. Mesto stanovanja

Entitet	n=351	Procenat (%)
Federacija Bosne i Hercegovine	219	62
Republika Srpska	123	35
Brčko Distrikt Bosne i Hercegovine	9	3

IZVOR: Vlastito istraživanje

U tabeli 9. prikazano mesto stanovanja ispitanih domaćinstava. Pokazalo se da prevladavaju ispitanici sa područja Federacije Bosne i Hercegovine, zatim slede ispitanici iz Republike Srpske i Brčko Distrikta Bosne i Hercegovine.

U okviru primarnog istraživanja prikupljeni su podaci primenom metode ispitivanja, koristeći anketni upitnik kao obrazac prikupljanja podataka. Također je

korištena petostepena Likertova skala za merenje etnocentričnih tendencija potrošača na području Bosne i Hercegovine.

Prilikom elaboracije određenih teorijskih i metodoloških ishodišta posmatranog problema, te određenih aplikativnih razmatranja, korišten je Cronbach alfa koeficijent za merenje pouzdanosti tvrdnji u skali potrošačkog etnocentrizma, zatim Kaiser – Meyer Olkinov test i Bartlettov test sferičnosti. Također je korišten hi – kvadrat test. U okviru CET skale korištena je analiza glavnih komponenti. Analiza varijanse korištena je za elaboraciju socio – demografskih obeležja ispitanika, metoda sinteze, te indukcije i dedukcije, metoda sistematizacije i klasifikacije. Za statističku obradu podataka korišten je i software SPSS.

4. REZULTATI ISTRAŽIVANJA

Analizom podataka utvrđeno je da učestalost odlazaka u kupovinu veće količine roba široke potrošnje i uticaj promotivnih aktivnosti poput „Kupuj domaće – kupuj srcem“ na kupovinu proizvoda domaćeg porekla predstavljaju navike potrošača u kupovini i potrošnji koje determinišu potrošački etnocentrizam na području Bosne i Hercegovine što je prikazano u tabeli 10. Ostale navike poput: učestalosti odlazaka u kupovinu svakodnevnih namirnica, mesto kupovine i obraćanje pažnje na poreklo proizvoda nisu pokazali uticaj na potrošački etnocentrizam u Bosni i Hercegovini.

TABELA 10. Uticaj navika u kupovini i potrošnji na potrošački etnocentrizam u Bosni i Hercegovini

Navike u kupovini i potrošnji:	Efekat navika u kupovini i potrošnji na potrošački etnocentrizam
Učestalost odlazaka u kupovinu	NE
Učestalost nabavke veće količine roba široke potrošnje	DA
Mesto obavljanja kupovine	NE
Promotivne aktivnosti poput „Kupuj domaće, kupuj srcem“	DA
Obraćanje pažnje na poreklo proizvoda	NE

IZVOR: Rezultati istraživanja (n= 351)

Za potrebe istraživanja potrošačkog etnocentrizma u Bosni i Hercegovini korištena je tzv. skala potrošačkog etnocentrizma. Kako bi se determinisala interna konzistentnost skale, korišten je Cronbach alfa koeficijent.

TABELA 11. Pozdanost CET skale

Cronbach alfa koeficijent	N faktora
.897	17

IZVOR: Rezultati istraživanja (n= 351)

CET skala koja je korišćena u provedenom istraživanju sadrži visok stepen pouzdanosti što je prikazano u tabeli 11. Dobijena vrednost od 0,897 pokazuje da su rezultati istraživanja reprezentativni i da je istraživanje implementirano na osnovu pouzdanog modela.

TABELA 12. Kaiser Meyer Olkinov test i Bartlettov test sferičnosti

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkinova mjera adekvatnosti uzorka		.939
Bartlettov test sferičnosti	Približni Hi - kvadrat	3398,673
Stepeni slobode		136
Signifikantnost		.000

IZVOR: Rezultati istraživanja (n= 351)

Tabela 12. pokazuje vrednost Kaiser Meyer Olkinovog testa koja iznosi 0,939 i veća je od 0,90, a Bartlettov test sferičnosti je statistički značajan ($\alpha \leq 0.05$), što pokazuje da je skala pogodna za dalju analizu uz pomoć analize glavnih komponenti.

Analizom glavnih komponenti prikazanom u tabeli 13. ekstrahovane su 3 komponente koje imaju eigenvalue veći od 1. Dakle, može se zaključiti da prva komponenta može objasniti 48,35% ukupne varijabilnosti svih 17 komponenti. Drugi faktor (Komponenta 2: „Treba uvoziti samo one proizvode kojih nema u Bosni i Hercegovini.“) objašnjava 7,58%, a treći (Komponenta 3: „Kupujte bosanskohercegovačke proizvode. Podržite bosanskohercegovačku zaposlenost.“) 6,03% ukupne varijabilnosti. U dijelu rotacija oprećenja sume kvadrata prikazane su tri komponente sa eigenvalue većim od 1. S obzirom na to, da jedan faktor objašnjava oko 48% ukupne varijanse (Komponenta 1: „Građani Bosne i Hercegovine uvijek trebaju kupovati bosanskohercegovačke proizvode umjesto uvoznih.“), to se isti naziva potrošački etnocentrizam, što potvrđuje jednodimenzionalnost CET skale.

TABELA 13. Ukupna varijansa CET skale

Komponente	Početne eigenvalue			Rotacija opterećenja sume kvadrata		
	Ukupno	% Varijanse	Kumulativno %	Ukupno	% Varijanse	Kumulativno %
1	8.22	48.35	48.35	8.22	48.35	48.35
2	1.28	7.58	55.94	1.28	7.58	55.94
3	1.02	6.03	61.98	1.02	6.03	61.98

IZVOR: Rezultati istraživanja (n= 351)

U tabeli 14. prikazane su etnocentrične tendencije potrošača na području Bosne i Hercegovine, tj. njihovi stavovi o kupovini domaćih proizvoda u odnosu na proizvode stranog porekla, stavovi u pogledu ograničavanja uvoznih proizvoda, njihove svesnosti da potrošački etnocentrizam stimuliše domaću zaposlenost, koji su mereni petostepenom Likertovom skalom.

Naime, bosanskohercegovački potrošači imaju izražen potrošački etnocentrizam u pogledu stimulisanja zaposlenosti u Bosni i Hercegovini kupovinom domaćih proizvoda (aritmetička sredina iznosi 4.7664), dok je najniži nivo etnocentrizma potrošača izražen u pogledu zabrane uvoza stranih proizvoda (aritmetička sredina iznosi 3.1652).

Rezultati analize varijanse kojom je testiran uticaj socio – demografskih obeležja ispitanika na potrošač-

TABELA 14. Etnocentrične tendencije potrošača u Bosni i Hercegovini

TVRDNJE:	Aritmetička sredina
1. Građani Bosne i Hercegovine uvijek trebaju kupovati bosanskohercegovačke proizvode umjesto uvoznih.	4.4530
2. Treba uvoziti samo one proizvode kojih nema u Bosni i Hercegovini.	4.5897
3. Kupujte bosanskohercegovačke proizvode. Podržite bosanskohercegovačku zaposlenost.	4.7664
4. Bosanskohercegovački proizvodi iznad svega.	4.3960
5. Kupovati inostrane proizvode nije bosanskohercegovački.	4.3134
6. Nije u redu kupovati inostrane proizvode, jer zbog toga građani Bosne i Hercegovine ostaju bez posla.	4.4644
7. Pravi građanin Bosne i Hercegovine uvijek kupuje bosanskohercegovačke proizvode	4.2593
8. Treba da kupujemo proizvode proizvedene u Bosni i Hercegovini umjesto da dopuštamo da se druge zemlje bogate na naš račun.	4.6496
9. Uvijek je najbolje kupovati bosanskohercegovačke proizvode.	4.4217
10. Treba vrlo malo trgovati s drugim zemljama ili kupovati njihove proizvode, osim ukoliko to baš nije neophodno.	4.4501
11. Građani Bosne i Hercegovine ne trebaju kupovati inostrane proizvode, jer to šteti bosanskohercegovačkoj privredi i uzrokuje nezaposlenost.	4.7407
12. Količinu svih uvezenih proizvoda treba ograničiti.	4.5299
13. Iako me može dugoročno više koštati, ipak preferiram kupovinu bosanskohercegovačkih proizvoda.	4.4359
14. Trebalo bi zabraniti strane proizvode na našem tržištu.	3.1652
15. Inostrane proizvode treba visoko oporezivati da bi se smanjilo njihovo prisustvo u Bosni i Hercegovini.	4.2564
16. Od stranih proizvoda trebamo kupovati samo one proizvode koje ne možemo da nabavimo u svojoj zemlji.	4.6097
17. Bosanskohercegovački potrošači koji kupuju inostrane proizvode odgovorni su za nezaposlenost u Bosni i Hercegovini.	3.9174

IZVOR: Rezultati istraživanja (n= 351)

TABELA 15. Analiza varijanse

ANOVA					
	Zbir kvadrata	Stepeni slobode (df)	Prosečno kvadratno odstupanje	F	Signifikantnost
Spol	.53	4	.13	.62	.64
Status u domaćinstvu	56.34	4	14.08	6.45	.00
Broj članova domaćinstva	27.70	4	6.92	2.75	.02
Nivo obrazovanja nosioca domaćinstva	22.33	4	5.58	6.41	.00
Radni status nosioca domaćinstva	14.03	4	3.50	6.77	.00
Bračni status nosioca domaćinstva	6.56	4	1.64	1.17	.32
Prosečna mesečna primanja domaćinstva	36.40	4	9.10	10.43	.00
Etnička pripadnost domaćinstva	7.41	4	1.85	1.26	.28
Mesto stanovanja	8.87	2	4.44	3.98	.02

IZVOR: Rezultati istraživanja (n = 351)

ki etnocentrizam u Bosni i Hercegovini prikazani su u tabeli 15.

Rezultati istraživanja su pokazali da spol, bračni status nosioca domaćinstva i etnička pripadnost domaćinstva ne utiču na potrošački etnocentrizam ($p > 0,05$), dok broj članova domaćinstva, status u domaćinstvu, nivo obrazovanja i radni status nosioca domaćinstva, prosečna mesečna primanja domaćinstva i mesto stanovanja imaju vrijednost $p < 0,05$ što znači da prethodno navedena socio – demografska obeležja domaćinstva determinišu opredeljenje potrošača u Bosni i Hercegovini za kupovinom proizvoda domaćeg porekla.

5. DISKUSIJA REZULTATA ISTRAŽIVANJA

Rezultati studije koju su Ranjbarian, Barari i Zabihzade (2011) proveli u Iranu pokazali su da navike u potrošnji kao što su potreba za jedinstvenošću i status pri potrošnji negativno utiču na stepen potrošačkog etnocentrizma. Međutim, autor je, pored toga, dokazao da je osetljivost potrošača na međuljudske odnose pozitivno korelirana sa potrošačkim etnocentrizmom. Što se socio – demografskih obilježja tiče, žene su u Iranu sklonije kupovini proizvoda domaćeg porekla, za razliku od muškaraca. Nadalje, mlađa populacija ima izraženije tendencije ka kupovini proizvoda domaćeg porijekla, u odnosu sa stariju populaciju.

U Bosni i Hercegovini je utvrđeno da učestalost kupovine roba široke potrošnje i uticaj promotivnih aktivnosti na kupovinu proizvoda domaćeg porekla, kao navike, determinišu stepen potrošačkog etnocen-

trizma. Sličnosti u metodološkom kontekstu se nalaze u korištenju petostepene Likertove skale za merenje etnocentričnih tendencija potrošača i analize varijanse. Hi – kvadrat test nije korišten kod prethodno navedene studije.

Istraživanje koje su proveli Marinković, Stanišić i Kostić (2011) pokazalo je da je došlo do blagog povećanja stepena potrošačkog etnocentrizma na području Republike Srbije u poslednjim godinama. Kao uzrok tome navodi se pojava ekonomske krize u kojoj se etnocentrično ponašanje manifestuje kao socijalno prihvatljivo. Također, ne treba izostaviti ni činjenicu da su razvoju ovog društvenog fenomena u Republici Srbiji značajno doprineli krediti za subvencionisanje kupovine domaćih proizvoda, što je, u konačnici, uticalo i na stvarno ponašanje potrošača u kupovini proizvoda domaćeg porekla. Na području Bosne i Hercegovine su izražene etnocentrične tendencije, što je vidljivo po osnovu tvrdnji iz CET skale. U metodološkom smislu postoje sličnosti sa studijom provedenom na području Republike Srbije u pogledu korištenja analize varijanse. Razlike u ovom pogledu se ogledaju što su navedeni autori koristili Tukey – Kramerov test, Levene i Kolmogorov - Smirnov test, dok isti u ovom radu nisu korišteni.

Rezultati istraživanja do kojih je došla Matić (2012), pokazali su da ne postoji značajan uticaj spola na potrošački etnocentrizam. Što se tiče socio – psiholoških faktora, studija je pokazala da ispitanici koji su više okrenuti religiji, te koji su nezadovoljni životom u Republici Hrvatskoj imaju izraženije etnocentrične tendencije. Rezultati su dobijeni korištenjem analize varijanse, Cronbach alfa koeficijenta i Kaiser – Meyer Olkinovog testa sferičnosti CET skale koji su korišće-

ni i u okviru ovog rada. Također, vidljiva je sličnost sa istraživanjem koje je provedeno u pogledu socio – demografskih obeležja. Ta sličnost se ogleda u tome što spol ni u Bosni i Hercegovini ne utiče na opredeljenje potrošača u pogledu kupovine proizvoda domaćeg porekla. Nadalje, pokazalo se da radni status, broj članova domaćinstva utiču na potrošački etnocentrizam u Bosni i Hercegovini, dok etnička pripadnost domaćinstava ne utiče na potrošački etnocentrizam.

Visok stepen potrošačkog etnocentrizma u Bosni i Hercegovini, potvrđen je u studiji koju su proveli Čičić, Brkić i Prašo – Krupalija (2003). Naime, sličnosti njihovog istraživanja su evidentne i u pogledu uvoznih proizvoda koje bosanskohercegovački potrošači ne odbacuju, kao i njihova svest o značaju povećanja zaposlenosti, proizvodnje i izvoza, kupovinom proizvoda domaćeg porekla. U oba slučaja korišćena je CET skala, s tim da je kod navedenih autora ona bila sedmostepena sa prosečnom srednjom vrednošću od 4.63, a u istraživanju koje tretira ovaj rad petostepena skala Likertovog tipa sa prosečnom srednjom vrednošću od 4.37, što potvrđuje visok nivo etnocentričnih tendencija kod potrošača u Bosni i Hercegovini.

6. ZAKLJUČCI I PREPORUKE

Na osnovu provedenog istraživanja može se zaključiti da fenomen potrošačkog etnocentrizma i faktori koji ga determinišu predstavljaju vrlo interesantno područje za provođenje naučnih istraživanja. Analizom navika i socio – demografskih obeležja potrošača utvrđene su ključne determinante koje utiču na etnocentrizam potrošača u Bosni i Hercegovini. Rezultati merenja potrošačkog etnocentrizma u Bosni i Hercegovini, koji su dobijeni uz pomoć CET skale, pokazali su visoku prisutnost etnocentričnih tendencija kod građana Bosne i Hercegovine. Iako potrošači

odobravaju uvoz stranih proizvoda, oni imaju razvijenu svest o važnosti jačanja nacionalne privrede kroz dodatna zapošljavanja, proizvodnju i izvoz roba van granica Bosne i Hercegovine. S obzirom da su utvrđene navike potrošača u kupovini i potrošnji i njihova socio – demografska obeležja koja determinišu stavove i ponašanje potrošača u Bosni i Hercegovini prema proizvodima domaćeg porekla, može se prihvatiti hipoteza H_0 .

Pošto je utvrđena korelacija između navika potrošača u kupovini i potrošnji, te potrošačkog etnocentrizma, prihvata se i hipoteza H_1 .

Rezultati istraživanja su pokazali da status u domaćinstvu, broj članova domaćinstva, nivo obrazovanja nosioca domaćinstva, radni status nosioca domaćinstva, prosečna mesečna primanja domaćinstva i mesto stanovanja utiču na potrošački etnocentrizam građana Bosne i Hercegovine, dok spol i radni status nosioca domaćinstva i etnička pripadnost domaćinstva nisu pokazali nikakve efekte na predmetni fenomen. Stoga se prihvata hipoteza H_2 .

Istraživanja iz domena potrošačkog etnocentrizma mogu poslužiti kao osnova za donošenje preporuka na tri segmenta i to: državnim organima i drugim institucijama, preduzećima na području Bosne i Hercegovine i ponašanju potrošača u pogledu potrošačkog etnocentrizma.

Preporuke državnim organima, asocijacijama i komorama odnose se na sve aspekte koji su bitni za kreiranje ambijenta u kojem će se moći pružiti pomoć preduzećima u vidu programa podrške razvoja domaće proizvodnje i zapošljavanja. Preduzeća trebaju prihvatiti predložene mere od strane državnih organa i razumeti barijere zbog kojih potrošači ne kupuju proizvode domaćeg porekla, te predvideti ponašanje potrošača u procesu kupovine proizvoda domaćeg i stranog porekla na tržištu Bosne i Hercegovine.

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Abstract:

The Key Determinants of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Bosnia and Herzegovina

Amela Bešlagić

The area of this research relates to consumer behavior and the effects that the influence of consumer ethnocentrism has on the national economy. Therefore is consumer ethnocentrism, as an attitude of spending and consumption of local products, the subject of this research. The aim is to identify the key determinants of the consumer ethnocentrism phenomenon, in order to explain the habits of consumers in the purchase and consumption of local products. The empirical research found the key determinants that influence the level of consumer ethnocentrism among the citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina. A questionnaire as a data collection form, was used, so as the Cronbach alpha coefficient to measure the reliability of the

CET scale, as well as the analysis of variance. The collected data were analyzed by using SPSS statistical software. The results confirmed recent findings conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina in this field. It was found that the Bosnian – Herzegovinian ethnocentric consumers and their propensity to purchase local products are defined by promotional activities, frequency of purchases of consumer goods, status in the household, number of household members, the average monthly household income, education level and employment status of the household head.

Keywords: consumer ethnocentrism, consumer habits, Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Kontakt:

Mag. oec. Amela Bešlagić
amela.beslagic@untz.ba

Univerzitet u Tuzli, Ekonomski fakultet
Univerzitetska 8 75000 Tuzla, Bosna i Hercegovina

Tehničko uputstvo za korišćenje sistema e-Ur: Elektronsko uređivanje časopisa

Poštovani,

Časopis Marketing počinje sa elektronskim uređivanjem kroz sistem e-Ur kojim rukovodi Centar za evaluaciju u obrazovanju i nauci (CEON).

Usled toga, Marketing mora da ispuni niz zahteva koji su postavljeni kroz važeći Akt o uređivanju naučnih časopisa. Step en usaglašenosti sa uslovima koje postavlja Akt o uređivanju naučnih časopisa ubuduće će biti osnov za kategorizaciju naučnih časopisa. Niz uslova koji se postavljaju pred naš časopis automatski će biti ispunjeni pristupanjem sistemu elektronskog uređivanja e-Ur. Pomoću sistema elektronskog uređivanja celokupan uređivački postupak biće daleko jednostavniji, brži i transparentniji, a autor će moći u svakom trenutku da ima uvid u kojoj se fazi uređivačkog postupka nalazi njegov rad. Usaglašavanje sa novim pravilima teći će postepeno i zahteve ćemo postepeno usvajati do konačnog i potpunog usaglašavanja sa uslovima koji se nalaze pred svim naučnim časopisima.

Sa zahvalnošću za razumevanje i napore koje ćemo zajedno uložiti kako bismo naš časopis osavremenili i usaglasili sa važećim uslovima, na zajedničku korist svih, u nastavku Vam dostavljamo detaljno tehničko uputstvo za korišćenje sistema e-Ur. Redakcija će od br. 1 za 2012. godinu ISKLJUČIVO na ovaj način primati radove.

Uredništvo

1. PRAVLJENJE KORISNIČKOG NALOGA – Registracija korisnika u sistem

- a) Kada se prvi put registrujete u sistem na web adresi <http://scindeks-eur.ceon.rs/index.php/mkng/> izaberite opciju

Početna > **Prijava**

Prijava

Korisničko ime

Lozinka

☐ Zapamti moje korisničko ime i lozinku

Prijava

» Niste korisnik? Registrujte se u ovaj sistem!
» Zaboravili ste lozinku?

- b) Na stranici za registraciju:

- Koristite isključivo **LATINICU** bilo da podatke unosite na srpskom ili engleskom jeziku
- Obavezno popunite sva polja koja su označena sa zvezdicom (*), bez toga nećete moći da dovršite proces registracije.
- Poželjno je da popunite i ostala polja, ali to možete uraditi i naknadno preko opcije **Moj profil**, kada se prijavite na svoj nalog. Takođe sve podatke o sebi, kao o korisniku, moguće je kasnije izmeniti.
- Zapišite na sigurno mesto vaše korisničko ime i loziku, u slučaju da je zaboravite.
- Stranicu **OBAVEZNO POPUNITI DVA PUTA**, i na srpskom i na engleskom jeziku na sledeći način:

Profil

Jezik obrasca **Srpski** Ukoliko želite da unesete

Korisničko ime*

Profil

Jezik obrasca **English** Ukoliko želite da unesete

Korisničko ime*

- Proveriti da li je u prvom polju **Jezik obrasca** podešena opcija **Srpski**

- Uneti sve podatke koji slede na srpskom jeziku **LATINICOM**
- U prvom polju **Jezik obrasca** podesiti opciju **English**
- Uneti sve podatke na engleskom jeziku
- Poslednje opcije se odnose na Vaš status u časopisu (Čitalac, Autor, Recenzent)
 - Profesori treba da obeleže sve tri opcije, autori se mogu istovremeno prijaviti i kao čitaoci.

Registruj se kao

☐ Čitalac: Dobijate obaveštenja e-poštom o novoobjavljenim brojevima časopisa.
☐ Autor: Možete prijavljivati priloge za ovaj časopis.
☐ Recenzent: Voljni ste da izradujete stručne recenzije priloga prijavljenih u ovom časopisu.

Registracija **Poniši**

- Na kraju kliknite na plavo dugme **Registracija**, u dnu stranice.
- Završili ste postupak registracije i automatski ste prijavljeni na svoj nalog.

2. PRIJAVA PRETHODNO REGISTROVANOG KORISNIKA – uređivanje profila; odjava

- a) Na web adresi <http://scindeks-eur.ceon.rs/index.php/mkng/> upisati korisničko ime i lozinku i kliknuti na plavo dugme **Prijava**

Prijava

Korisničko ime

Lozinka

☐ Zapamti moje korisničko ime i lozinku

Prijava

- b) Podake o Vama možete u svakom trenutku menjati u opciji **Moj profil**, u meniju sa leve strane. Ulaskom u ovu opciju naći ćete se na identičnoj stranici kao prilikom registracije Vašeg naloga.

Korisnik

Prijavljeni ste kao...

Moji časopisi

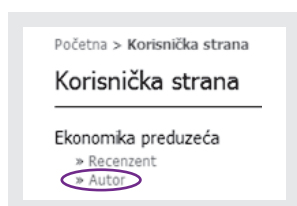
Moj profil

Odjava

- c) Nakon unetih izmena pritiskom na dugme **Sačuvaj** izvršićete izmene u Vašem profilu.
- d) Po završetku rada odjavite se pritiskom na opciju **Odjava**, u meniju sa leve strane.

3. PRIJAVA NOVOG PRILOGA – predavanje prve verzije rada Uredništvu

- Po prijavi (*videti uputstvo 2.a*) odaberite opciju **Autor**.



- Za početak prijave priloga izaberite opciju **Kliknite ovde**

Započnite prijavu novog priloga
Za početak prijave priloga **KLIKNITE OVDE.**

Nalazite se na 1. koraku prijave priloga – početak

- a) Obavezno popunite sva polja koja su označena sa zvezdicom (*), bez toga nećete moći da pređete na sledeći korak.
- b) Prvo je neophodno da odaberete odgovarajuću **Rubriku** za Vaš prilog. Rubriku morate odabrati, a Glavni urednik ukoliko bude smatrao da Vaš prilog ne spada u odabranu rubriku, izvršiće potrebnu promenu.

1.korak Započnite s prijavom priloga

1. POČETAK 2. METAPODACI 3. PRILAGANJE DATOTEKE 4. DOPUNSKE DATOTEKE 5. POTVRDA

Rubrika časopisa

Odaberite odgovarajuću rubriku za Vaš prilog (pogledajte Rubrike pod Uređivačka politika na Info).

Rubrika*

Molimo odaberite rubriku...

- c) Neophodno je da Vaš **rad ispunjava sve postavljene tehničke zahteve**, nezavisno od toga koliko ih je u datom trenutku prijave postavljeno i da li su eventualno promenjeni od poslednjeg puta kada ste prijavljivali prilog. Tehnička opremljenost rada podrazumeva:

Uslovi za predaju priloga *

Potvrdite da je Vaš prilog spreman za ulazak u uređivački postupak time što zadovoljava sledeće uslove

- ☒ Prijavljeni prilog ne sme biti prethodno objavljivani
- ☒ Naslovi, sažeci (do 200 reči) i ključne reči dati su na dva jezika (a) srpskom i (b) engleskom, or rasprostranjeno koristi u određenoj oblasti nauke
- ☒ Rad treba da bude pripremljen kao jedan dokument (koji sadrži tekstualni deo, fusnote, i Format (rtf) formatu
- ☒ Osnovni naslov rada mora biti kratak i jasan, po mogućstvu sa više podnaslova, u zavisnosti obrađuje. Forma naslova: centriran, boldiran, svi podnaslovi treba da budu standardno fo
- ☒ Svaki prilog mora imati kratak uvod na početku rada u kome je objašnjena suština i orijet
- ☒ Koristiti pojedinačni prored i font Times New Roman, veličine karaktera 11 i sve margin
- ☒ Tabele i ilustracije treba da budu numerisane (1,2,3...) sa linjskim proredom i s cm sa sve 4 strane) treba da ostanu prazne. Sve tabele i ilustracije moraju biti je da se navode po brojevima. Tabele i ilustracije mogu biti u eps, pdf, wmf for
- ☒ Fusnote i ostale napomene treba da budu prikazane na dnu svake strane, a ne numerisane
- ☒ Lista referenci treba da bude data po abecednom redu prezimena autora. Direktni citati u tekstu navoditi na sledeći način: (Manić B., 2008, str. 11)

Pri navođenju referenci koristiti sledeći format:

Knjige:

Manić, B. (2008), *Ponašanje potrošača*, 8. izdanje, CID Ekonomskog fakulteta

Članci u časopisima:

Bayton, J. (1958), „Motivation, Cognition, Learning – Basic Factors in Consum str. 282-289.

Radovi u zbornicima sa konferencija:

Dianoux, C., Linhart, Z. and Kettnerova, J. (2007), Impact of Nudity in Adv Spain, France and the Czech Republic. *Proceedings of the 15th Annual Con Central and Eastern Europe*, (ured. Reiner Singer and Petr Chadrabab) Beč, Aus

- Prijavljeni rad nije prethodno objavljivani.
- Naslovi, sažeci (do 200 reči) i ključne reči dati su na dva jezika (a) srpskom i (b) engleskom, odnosno izuzetno na nekom drugom svetskom jeziku ako se taj rasprostranjeno koristi u određenoj oblasti nauke
- Rad treba da bude pripremljen kao jedan dokument (koji sadrži tekstualni deo, fusnote, reference, grafike i tabele) u MS Word (doc) ili Rich Text Format (rtf) formatu
- Osnovni naslov rada mora biti kratak i jasan, po mogućstvu sa više podnaslova, u zavisnosti od dužine i profila rada, odnosno problema koji se obrađuje. Forma naslova: centriran, boldiran; svi podnaslovi treba da budu standardno formatirani i pozicionirani uz levu marginu.
- Svaki prilog mora imati kratak uvod na početku rada u kome je objašnjena suština i orijentacija priloga.
- Koristiti pojedinačni prored i font Times New Roman, veličine karaktera 11 i sve marginae od 1 inča (2,54 cm).

- Tabele i ilustracije treba da budu numerisane (1,2,3...) sa linijskim proredom i smeštene u sam tekst. Navedene margine (2,54 cm sa sve 4 strane) treba da ostanu prazne. Sve tabele i ilustracije moraju biti pregledne. Kada se pominju u tekstu, neophodno je da se navode po brojevima. Tabele i ilustracije mogu biti u eps, pdf, wmf formatu ili jednostavno nacrtani u Wordu ili Excelu.
- Fusnote i ostale napomene treba da budu prikazane na dnu svake strane, a ne na kraju rada. Potrebno je da fusnote budu numerisane.
- Lista referenci treba da bude data po abecednom redu prezimena autora. Direktni citati treba da budu navedeni pod znacima navoda. Reference u tekstu navoditi na sledeći način: (Maričić B., 2008, str.11)
- Pri navođenju referenci na listi na kraju rada, koristiti sledeći stil:

Knjige:

Maričić, B. (2008), *Ponašanje potrošača*, 8. izdanje, CID Ekonomskog fakulteta, Beograd

Članci u časopisima:

Bayton, J. (1958), „Motivation, Cognition, Learning – Basic Factors in Consumer Behavior“, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 22, No. 3, str. 282-289.

Radovi u zbornicima sa konferencija:

Dianoux, C., Linhart, Z. and Kettnerova, J. (2007), Impact of Nudity in Advertisements: Comparison of the First Results from Spain, France and the Czech Republic. *Proceedings of the 15th Annual Conference on Marketing and Business Strategies for Central and Eastern Europe*, (ured. Reiner Sringer and Petr Chadraba) Beč, Austrija, str. 41-49.

Internet izvori:

Oliveira, A., *The Motivation Process*, www.sam.sdu.dk/~amo/ppt/capit4.pdf, pristupljeno: 4.11. 2009.

- d) Pročitajte ih pažljivo i potvrdite samo onda kada Vaš rad zaista ispunjava date uslove. Ukoliko Vaš rad to ne ispunjava, uredite ga i potom nastavite postupak prijave. Tek kada budete sigurni da Vaš rad ispunjava postavljene uslove **označite sve kockice**.
- e) Na ovaj način preuzimate odgovornost da Vaš prilog zaista i ispunjava postavljene uslove, na osnovu čega će biti doneta odluka o ulasku u uređivački postupak.
- f) Pređite na sledeći korak pritiskom na dugme u dnu **Sačuvaj i nastavi**

Nalazite se na 2. koraku prijave priloga – metapodaci - najznačajniji korak u prijavi novog priloga

- a) **Metapodaci** su podaci o radu koji se, nezavisno od toga što se oni uključuju u sam rad, **posebno unose u sam sistem** kako bi pratili rad i omogućili dalje praćenje citiranosti rada i ostalih relevantnih parametara.
- b) **Metapodaci** uključuju:
 - Podatke o autoru
 - Naslov i sažetak
 - Ostale podatke
- c) Potrebno je da metapodatke **unesete isključivo LATINICOM** bilo da podatke unosite na srpskom ili engleskom jeziku.
- d) **Podatke o autoru** sam sistem preuzima sa Vašeg profila. Oni takođe **moraju biti ispisani LATNICOM**.
- e) **Obavezno popunite sva polja koja su označena sa zvezdicom (*)**.
- f) **Stranicu OBAVEZNO POPUNITI DVA PUTA, i na srpskom i na engleskom jeziku na sledeći način:**
 - Proveriti da li je u prvom polju **Jezik obrasca** podešena opcija **Srpski**
 - Uneti sve metapodatke koji slede na srpskom jeziku **obavezno LATINICOM**

- U prvom polju **Jezik obrasca** podesiti opciju **English**
- Uneti sve metapodatke na engleskom jeziku

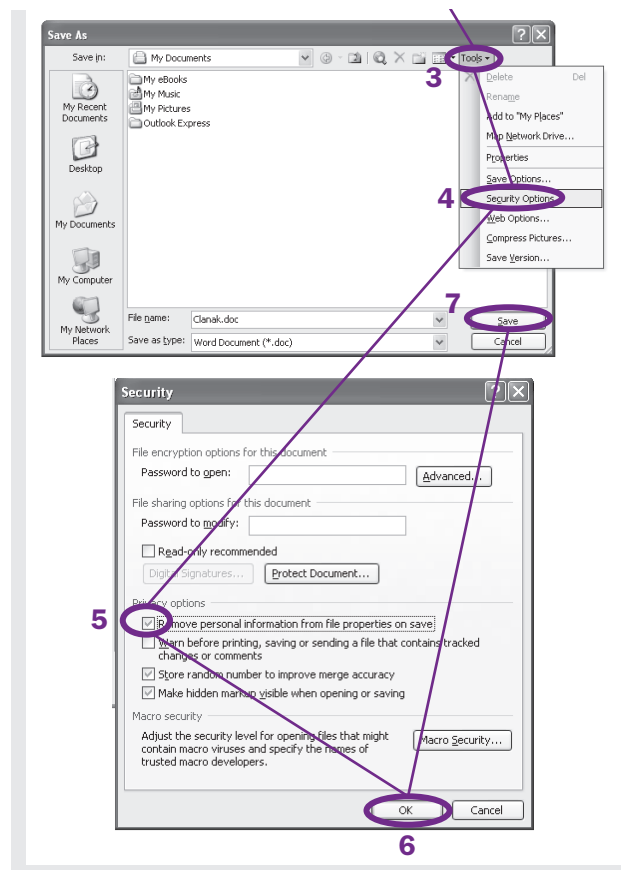
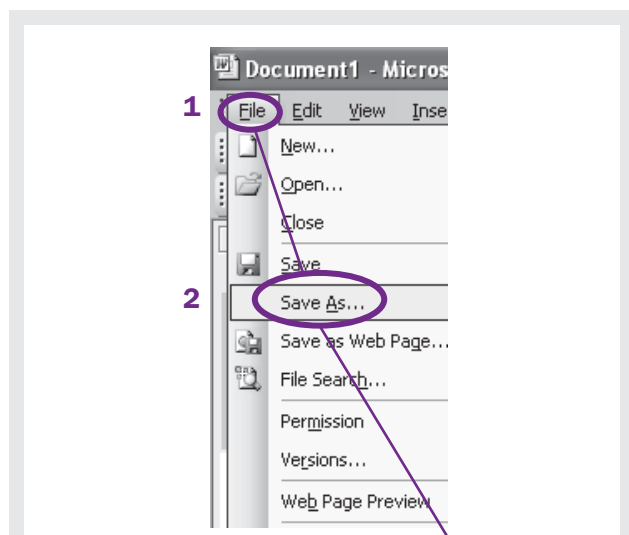
- Pređite na sledeći korak pritiskom na dugme u dnu **Sačuvaj i nastavi**

Nalazite se na 3. koraku prijave priloga – prilaganje datoteke

- Na ovom koraku u sistem podnosite samu **datoteku (fajl) u WORD formatu (.doc ili .docx)**
- Vodite računa da se Vaš **rad podnosi u verziji koja tek treba da ide na recenziju**. Ne treba podnositi rad koji je prošao postupak recenzije izvan sistema. Smisao sistema **e-Ur** jeste upravo u vršenju uređivačkog, time i postupka recenzije kroz sistem, na osnovu čega se vrši evaluacija kvaliteta uređivanja časopisa, pa i samog rada.
- Datoteka (fajl) u WORD formatu ne sme sadržati podatke o autoru – afilijaciju**. Sistem zahteva da postupak recenzije bude anoniman, odnosno da recenzent kada dobije rad nema u njemu i podatke o autoru. Nakon okončanja postupka recenzije Autor će podatke o sebi uneti u rad, pre predaje za objavljivanje.
- U slučajevima kada se Autor poziva na svoju knjigu ili članak, **neophodno je izostaviti oblike sa prisvojnim pridevima „moj rad“, „naš rad“ i sl.** i pozivati se kao da je u pitanju drugi autor (npr. *Videti više o tome Petrović, P...*).
- Neophodno je da **autor u datoteci (fajlu) Microsoft Word iz Properties ukloni ličnu identifikaciju** na sledeći način:

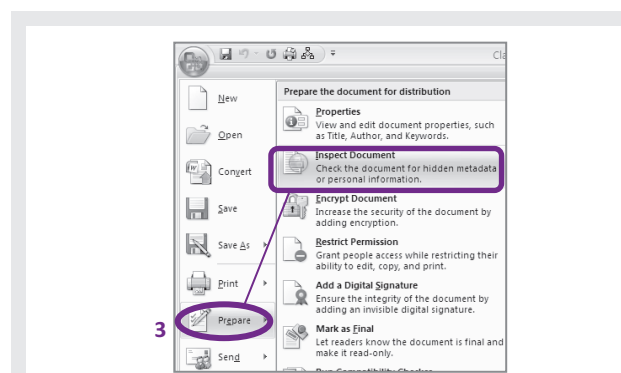
► Za verzije Word zaključno sa 2003:

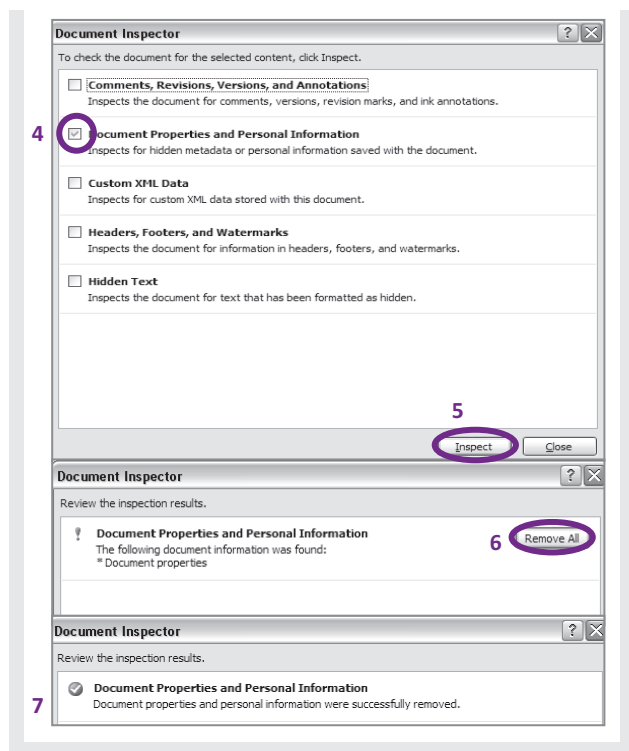
File > Save As > Tools > Security > Remove personal information from file on save > OK > Save



► Za verziju Word2007:

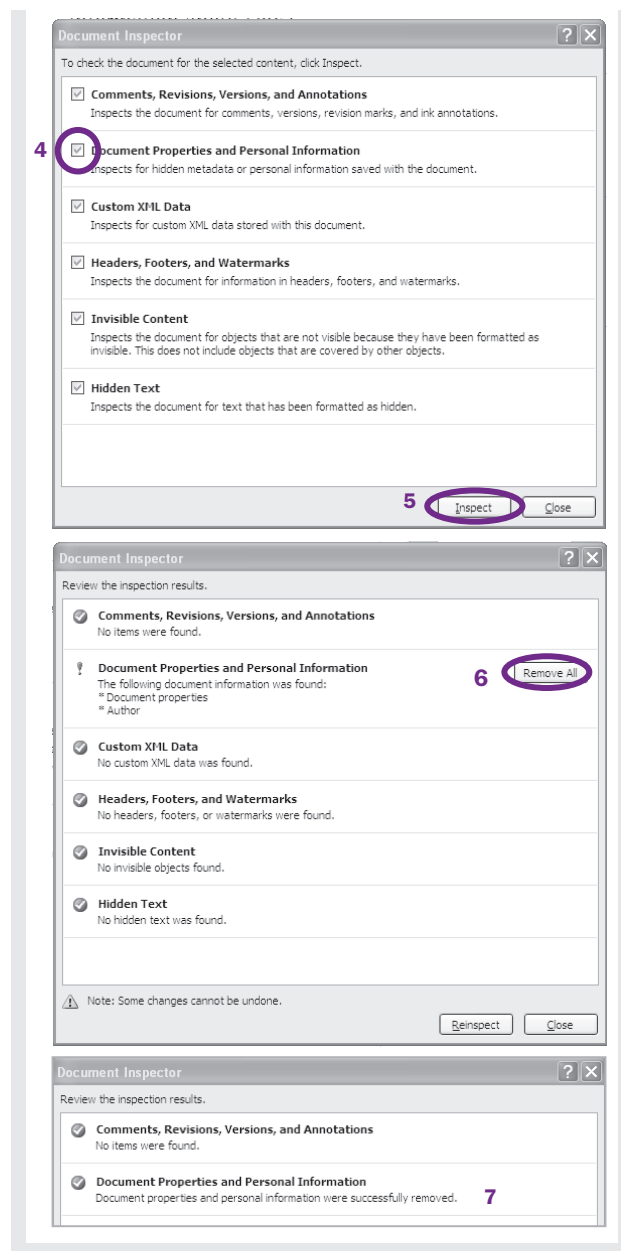
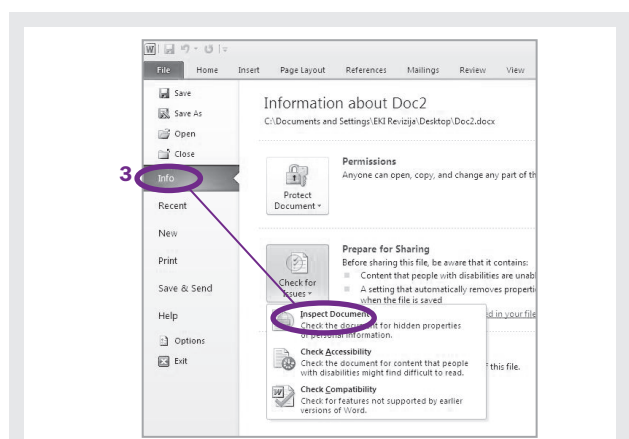
- Kliknite na **Office button** u gornjem levom uglu prozora
- Izaberite opciju **Prepare**, a zatim opciju **Inspect Document**
- Označite **Document Properties and Personal Information**
- Kliknite na dugme **Inspect**
- Kliknite na dugme **Remove All**
- Program će potvrditi brisanje ličnih podataka
- Kliknite na dugme **Close**





► Za verziju Word 2010:
(slično kao i 2007)

- Izaberite opciju **Info**, a zatim opciju **Inspect Document**
- Kliknite na dugme **Inspect**
- Kliknite na dugme **Remove All**
- Program će potvrditi brisanje ličnih podataka
- Kliknite na dugme **Close**



- Zahtev anonimnosti recenzije postavlja važeći Akt o uređivanju naučnih časopisa, donet od strane Ministarstva za nauku i tehnološki razvoj, koji je moguće pronaći na Internet adresi: http://ceon.rs/pdf/akt_o_uredjivanju_casopisa.pdf
- Datoteka (fajl) u WORD formatu moraju u sebi sadržati sve metapodatke (naslov i sažetak) i na srpskom i na engleskom, identične onima koje ste uneli u prethodnom koraku. U slučaju da tokom procesa recenziranja dođe do promene metapodataka, Glavni urednik će izvršiti njihovu izmenu.
- Sledite detaljna uputstva za prilaaganje datoteke koja sadrži Vaš prilog** koja su Vam data na stranici na kojoj se nalazite:

3.korak Prilaganje datoteke

1. POČETAK 2. METAPODACI 3. PRILAGANJE DATOTEKE 4. DODATNE DATOTEKE 5. POTVRDA

Da biste priložili rukopis, unesite naziv odgovarajuće datoteke na lokanom disku Vašeg računara, uključujući i putanju do datoteke. To možete učiniti tako da:

1. Kliknite (dole) na *Browse* (ili *Choose file*), čime otvarate prozor za navigaciju u Vašem računaru.
2. Locirajte datoteku i označite je.
3. Kliknite na *Open* u prozoru *Choose File*, čime upisujete naziv datoteke u odgovarajući prostor sistema e-Ur.
4. Kliknite na *Pošalji datoteku*, čime se datoteka s računara prenosi na e-Ur stranicu časopisa.
5. Kada se naziv i podaci o datoteci ispišu na ekranu, kliknite na *Sačuvaj i nastavi*.

Sadržaj priložene datoteke možete da proverite ukoliko kliknete na njen naziv. Pritom možete da je zamenite novom ili revidiranom datotekom.

Datoteka s prilogom

Datoteka još nije priložena.

Postavi datoteku priloga

Browse...

Pošalji datoteku

Sačuvaj i nastavi

Poništi

Nalazite se na 4. koraku prijave priloga – prilaganje dodatne datoteke

- Ovaj korak Vam uobičajeno neće trebati, već pređite direktno na korak br. 5.

Dopunska datoteka

Nema postavljene datoteke.

Postavi datoteku

Browse...

Odaberite "Sačuvaj" da biste postavili datoteku (nakon toga možete priložiti još dopunskih datoteka).

☐ Želim ovu datoteku (bez metapodataka) da učinim dostupnom recenzentima, budući da neće ugroziti anonimnost recenzije.

Nalazite se na 5. koraku prijave priloga – potvrda prijave priloga

- Poslednji korak Vam omogućava da **klikom na ime datoteke** u polju *Izvorno ime datoteke* prekontrolišete poslednji put da li ste u sistem položili odgovarajući dokument.

ID	IZVORNO IME DATOTEKE
86	CLANAK.DOCX

Dovrši prijavu priloga Poništi

- U slučaju da utvrdite da ste podneli pogrešan dokument, pre dovršetka prijave priloga, kliknite

na opciju **3. Prilaganje datoteke** i naćićete se na 3. koraku prijave priloga. Ponovite postupak i izaberite odgovarajući dokument koji će zameniti stari.

5.korak Potvrdite prijavljivanje priloga

1. POČETAK 2. METAPODACI 3. PRILAGANJE DATOTEKE 4. DODATNE DATOTEKE 5. POTVRDA

- Klikom na dugme **Dovrši prijavu priloga** završavate postupak i Vaš rad je tog momenta predat Uredništvu.

4. POSTUPAK NAKON PREDAJE PRILOGA

- Nakon obavljenog postupka predaje priloga Vaš rad se nalazi u postupku uređivanja, o čijem toku

ćete od samog početka biti obaveštavani putem mejl adrese koju ste uneli u sistem prilikom registracije. Molimo Vas da elektronsku poštu na adresi koju ste uneli prilikom registracije proveravate redovno.

- Promena imejl adrese, putem koje će Vas sistem obaveštavati Vašim prilogu, moguća je pod opcijom **Moj profil**
- Osim putem obaveštenja elektronskom poštom, u svakom trenutku prijavom u sistem možete videti u kojoj se fazi nalazi Vaš rad.
 - a) Po izvršenoj prijavi odaberite opciju **Autor**.
 - b) Pred Vama će se otvoriti prozor **Aktivni priloz** u kome ćete moći da vidite status svih Vaših priloga koje ste podneli Uredništvu.
 - c) Klikom na aktivne opcije možete se informisati:
 1. O samom prilogu klikom na aktivni **naslov priloga**
 2. O postupku uređivanja i rokovima u kojima će određene faze uređivačkog postupka biti realizovane, klikom na aktivni **status priloga**.

Početna > Korišćenik > Autor > Aktivni priloz

Aktivni priloz

AKTIVNO

ARHIVA

ID	MM-DD PRILOZI	RUBRIKA	AUTOR(I)	NASLOV	STATUS
61	10-11	ČLA	Petrović	CLANAK	U RECENZIJU

1 - 1 od 1 stavke

Započnite prijavu novog priloga

Za početak prijave priloga KLIKNIITE OVDE.

5. INDEKSIRANJE (ODREĐIVANJE KLJUČNIH REČI)

- Indeksiranje rada, odnosno određivanje ključnih reči (KR) je takođe operacija od velike važnosti. Rad koji je dobro indeksiran, lakše će biti pronađen od strane onih kojima je potreban i verovatnije će biti citiran. Zato se u e-Ur indeksiranju poklanja najveća moguća pažnja. S tim ciljem razvijen je i ugrađen u e-Ur sistem za podršku dodeljivanja ključnih reči (KWASS: KeyWords Assignment Support System).

- KWASS se koristi u dva koraka:
 1. Sistem najpre automatski generiše određeni broj KR. Zaseban modul (AKwA: Automatic KeyWords Assignment) analizira naslov i apstrakt i ekstrahuje iz odgovarajućeg rečnika/tezaurusa određeni, obično veći broj KR koje najbolje opisuju sadržaj rada. AKwA KR se upisuju u gornji okvir u rubrici pod nazivom Ključne reči na stranici Uređivanje metapodataka.
 2. Po obaveštenju da Vam je rad prihvaćen ili uslovno prihvaćen (odluka: Prihvatiti, Neophodne izmene, Ponovo predati na recenziju) pristupite toj rubrici i overite AKwA KR. Pri tom koristite alatku (KeFiR: KeyWords Final Refinement) koja Vam omogućava da svaku pojedinačnu reč prihvatite ili zamene drugom. Prihvaćene pomoću odgovarajućeg dugmeta prepisujete u zaseban (donji) okvir u istoj rubrici.
- Odabir KR za zamenu obavlja pretraživanjem istog rečnika/tezaurusa iz koga su i ekstrahovane:
 - U donji okvir (slika u nastavku) unosi se niz od nekoliko slova da bi se izlistali svi termini u rečniku koji započinju tim nizom, a zatim
 - Klikom na onu koja Vam najviše odgovara upisujete tu reč u predviđeni okvir.
 - Ako u rečniku ne nalazite reči koje bi bile dobra zamena ili dopuna AKwA rečima, izuzetno možete upotrebiti reč po sopstvenom izboru. U Vašem interesu je da izbegavate reči koje nisu šire prihvaćene i retko se javljaju, makar precizno opisivale Vaš rad.
 - Preporučljivo je, ako je moguće, da izbor KR pored pojmova obuhvati još bar po jedan termin koji se odnosi na geografsku lokaciju, karakteristike korišćenog uzorka i opis metoda istraživanja. Ukupan broj KR trebalo bi da bude orijentaciono 10.

Indeksiranje

Ključne reči*

Ključne reči u donjem okviru automatski su generisane sistemom AKwA. Pomoću dugmadi Prihvati i Prihvati sve, odaberite (orijentaciono 10) reči koje najbolje opisuju Vaš rad.

causes	Prihvati Prihvati sve
contribution	
development	
effectiveness	
evaluation	
IF2	
impact	
JCR	
Performances	
Period	

	Ukloni
--	---------------------------------------

Da biste dodali ključnu reč, unesite početni deo njenog naziva i odaberite jednu od ponuđenih.

	Dodaj
----------------------	--------------------------------------

- AKwA dodeljuje samo KR na engleskom jeziku. KR na srpskom se dobijaju prevođenjem engleskih KR. (Ovo rešenje je privremeno, pošto je razvoj automatskog prevođenja KR sa engleskog na srpski u toku). Da bi to obavili morate da pro-

menite jezik metapodatka pri vrhu stranice. KR na engleskom jeziku koje ste prethodno konačno odabrali sada su Vam date u levoj koloni tabele, da bi u desnoj upisali njihove prevođe.

UPUTSTVO ZA AUTORE/INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS

Marketing je časopis nacionalnog značaja koji se objavljuje kvartalno. Namijenjen je širokom krugu čitalaca, akademskoj i stručnoj javnosti. Tekstovi objavljeni u časopisu pokrivaju oblast marketinga u najširem smislu.

Prilozi pripremljeni za objavljivanje u časopisu treba da doprinese razumevanju i širenju ideja marketing teorije i prakse. Posebno su interesantni prilozi koji obrađuju svetska iskustva u ovoj oblasti. Prilozi fokusirani na ocenu značaja i mogućnosti primene teorijskih koncepata u praksi preduzeća u Srbiji su, takođe, poželjni. Prednost pri objavljivanju imaju originalni i pregledni radovi, kao i monografske studije. Svi dostavljeni radovi se recenziraju, a u časopisu će biti objavljivani samo oni za koje Redakcija dobije dve pozitivne ocene recenzenata. Procedura pregledanja zahteva da originalni tekstovi ne budu potpisani od strane autora. Umesto toga, potrebno je da se dostavi poseban list na kome će biti napisani samo ime članka, ime autora, njegova titula i mail adresa. Druga strana treba da sadrži naslov, kratak sažetak (dužine od oko 100 do 200 reči) u kome su sumirane osnovne poente i zaključci rada, listu ključnih reči (do 5) i dvocifreni kod klasifikacije u skladu sa the Journal of Economic Literature (http://www.aeweb.org/journal/jel_class_system.html).

Priprema teksta mora biti u skladu sa sledećim uputstvom:

- Autorski radovi ne treba da budu kraći od 30.000 karaktera, odnosno 10 strana A4 formata, pisani kratkim i jasnim rečenicama sa uredno razdvojenim tabelama i rezimeima na srpskom i engleskom jeziku. Koristiti pojedinačni prored i font Times New Roman, veličine karaktera 11 i sve marginae od 1 inča (2,54 cm).
- Autori treba da pošalju tri kopije rada na srpskom ili engleskom jeziku i CD na kome je rad snimljen. Preporučuje se korišćenje laserskog štampača. Štampana verzija rada mora biti čitka. Rad treba da bude pripremljen kao jedan dokument (koji sadrži tekstualni deo, fusnote, reference, grafike i tabele) u MS Word (doc) ili Rich Text Format (rtf) formatu. Grafikoni, šematski prikazi i ostale ilustracije moraju biti posebno snimljene na disk kao posebna dokumenta (uz navođenje izvora) u WMF, TIFF, PCX, JPG; GIF formatu u rezoluciji od 300 dpi.
- Prva strana treba da sadrži sledeće informacije, centrirane (jednake leva i desna i gornja i donja margina): naslov rada, ime i prezime autora (bez navedene titule). Ime i adresa institucije iz koje autor dolazi takođe treba da budu navedeni. Na prvoj strani treba da se nalazi i abstrakt rada.
- Radovi se objavljuju na srpskom ili engleskom jeziku sa obavezanim (obrnutim) rezimeom. Abstrakt (rezime) ne bi trebalo da sadrži više od 200 reči.
- Osnovni naslov rada mora biti kratak i jasan, po mogućstvu sa više podnaslova, u zavisnosti od dužine i profila rada, odnosno problema koji se obrađuje. Forma naslova: centriran, boldiran; svi podnaslovi treba da budu standardno formatirani i pozicionirani uz levu marginu.
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